

PROCEEDINGS  
OF THE  
NATIONAL CONFERENCE  
OF  
Charities and Correction,  
AT THE  
THIRTEENTH ANNUAL SESSION HELD IN ST. PAUL, MINN.,  
JULY 15-22, 1886.

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EDITED BY  
ISABEL C. BARROWS,  
Official Reporter of the Conference.

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## PREFACE.

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IN accordance with the resolution of the National Conference adopted during the Thirteenth Annual Session at St. Paul in Minnesota, the present volume of Proceedings contains fewer pages than the volume for 1885, not because the material presented for publication was less in amount, but because it has been condensed in editing. The same general arrangement has been followed as in 1885, but slight variations have been rendered necessary by the exigencies of printing. Thus, the Reports from States, which last year immediately followed the opening addresses, are now placed after the Reports from Committees and special Papers. The number of States and Territories reporting this year is thirty-four, hardly so many as in 1885; nor are the reports themselves so extended. It has not been found possible to preserve uniformity in these reports nor to prepare a general summary for the whole United States, as would be desirable.

The usual variety of subjects has been treated this year in the Committee Reports and the special Papers; while the discussions add considerably to this abundance of topics, none of which in a country so extended and so rapidly changing as our own can well be omitted. The Table of Contents at the beginning of the volume and the Index of Subjects at the end will show the universality of discussion in the Conference. Much to the regret of the editor, a few papers, which it was intended to publish, were either received too late or not at all. Occasionally, a paper, which came in too late for its proper place in the body of the book, has been given in an abridged form among the Minutes and Discussions.

Many of the papers have been reprinted in pamphlet form, but these can be obtained only by application to the various authors. Such reprints are marked \* in the Table of Contents.

The present volume can be obtained of the editor, Mrs. Isabel C. Barrow., 141 Franklin Street, Boston. Price per copy, cloth, \$1.50, paper, \$1.25, with discounts as follows: ten copies and less than fifty, ten per cent.; fifty copies and less than two hundred, twenty-five per cent.; two hundred copies or over, forty per cent.

The Proceedings of former years may also be obtained by application to Mrs. Barrows,—those published since 1880 for \$1.25 in paper covers, and \$1.50 in muslin. The Proceedings of 1877, 1878, and 1880 are scarce; the volume for 1876 is out of print. The other numbers are also for sale by G. P. Putnam's Sons, 181 Fifth Avenue, New York; Cupples, Upham & Co., corner of School and Washington Streets, Boston. Copies may also be ordered from H. H. Hart, St. Paul, Minn.

The Fourteenth Session of the Conference will be held at Omaha, Neb., some time in 1887, the exact date yet to be designated. The President for the year is Mr. H. H. Giles, of Madison, Wis. The names of the other officers and committees will be found on page 428. A Local Committee will be organized at Omaha to make the necessary arrangements for the Conference of 1887.

BOSTON, Nov. 20, 1886.

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## I.

### Opening Session.

#### INTRODUCTORY ADDRESSES.

ADDRESS OF REV. M. MCG. DANA, D.D.,

CHAIRMAN OF THE LOCAL COMMITTEE.

*Ladies and Gentlemen,*—Following the custom of other years, the pleasant privilege now devolves upon me, as chairman of the Local Committee, of introducing the special services of welcome which always mark the initial meeting of every annual session of this body. We are assembled here to greet those of you who are our guests on this occasion, and to assure you of our grateful appreciation of the honor done us in convening in the capital city of the Commonwealth of Minnesota.

This is the first time in its history that this Conference, with somewhat of the courage of the knights-errant of old, has ventured so far into this *terra incognita* christened the North-west. It may have seemed to some of you, in making your long pilgrimage hither to this temporary Mecca of the disciples of sweet charity, amid well-nigh tropic heats, as if this must be our country's extremest verge,—a sort of land's end hard on to the limits of civilization and fertile soil. But let me remind you—by way of correcting any such impressions—that, were you to place one point of a pair of dividers on St. Paul and the other on Jacksonville, Fla., and then move the latter limb north and east, when abreast of New York it would be three hundred miles out at sea; or, reversing the direction, and moving west, you would strike the City of Mexico; or, swinging to the north, and west of St. Paul, your point would still fall some three hundred miles short of reaching the utmost verge of arable and productive land capable of sustaining a large population. In fact, from where we now are sitting, it is four hundred miles nearer the Isthmus of Panama than Behring Straits; while we are no further distant from

the spot where Dr. Kane's party went into winter quarters — almost on the shores of the open Polar Sea — than from the proposed canal across Nicaragua. This is practically about the centre of our great Republic; and here, between these twin cities, is to be found the most convenient site for our national capital, whenever it may — following the course of this Conference — deem it necessary to move from Washington westward.

We have long anticipated your coming, and have ventured to sound your praises to our own people in advance of your advent. But we are confident that you will fulfil every expectation, and do us the good we need, and carry with you, when departing, our friendship and God-speed.

ADDRESS OF HON. LUCIUS F. HUBBARD,  
GOVERNOR OF MINNESOTA.

*Mr. President, and Ladies and Gentlemen of the Conference,*— I assure you, ladies and gentlemen, that you have met in the midst of a people who appreciate the character of the work in which you are engaged, and who desire to render your efforts in that behalf such recognition and support as should ever be accorded the benefactors of mankind.

Minnesota, though one of the younger sisters in the family of States, feels that she is well advanced in the character of her charitable and correctional work, and that she has accomplished substantial results in her efforts to place the administration of her charitable, penal, and reformatory institutions upon an enlightened and beneficent basis. She feels also that she owes much to you, ladies and gentlemen, for her advanced position in this respect. You will bear me witness that, in recent years, she has taken an active interest in your organization, and in those questions of practical charity which have been the subject of your consideration and action. She has sent able delegations of her representative men to your conventions, through whom her voice has been heard in behalf of measures you have adopted for the amelioration of the afflicted and the condemned. She recognizes in your body an agency for incalculable good to those classes of the community whose dependence is largely the charity of the State, and those whose reformation must depend upon the character of the methods adopted for their treatment and restraint.

Entertaining such sentiments regarding your body, our people could not feel otherwise than honored by your presence in their

midst. They welcome you, therefore, with overflowing hearts; and they bid me express their profound appreciation of your unselfish efforts for the relief and reformation of your fellow-men. They desire to learn from you wherein their own charitable and corrective methods may be wisely changed; and they wish to render such aid to your deliberations here, and in furtherance of your work hereafter, as their best intelligence and most willing effort will allow.

You are engaged in a work which has for its purpose the solution of great social problems, to the study of which the best intelligence of generations has been devoted. Like difficulties confront you that have thwarted the efforts of philanthropists in the past. To overcome the prejudices and reform the practices established by long-existing custom must be the work of time and an enlightened public sentiment. It might be supposed that where the purpose was to relieve the suffering, lighten the burdens, and generally to rehabilitate the condition and character of afflicted humanity, hearty sympathy and cordial co-operation would come as a voluntary tender from every quarter; but a striking feature of your experience has been the resistance offered to innovations upon methods hallowed by long-continued use. The progress you are making, however, in the dislodging of theories entrenched by time encourages you to press forward in your work of reform. In all the States where Boards of Charities and Correction are established, you have in them a powerful ally; and, without vanity, we feel that Minnesota holds a post of honor beneath your standards. Our State Board, acting largely under the inspiration of this national body, has performed most valuable service in the cause of charitable and correctional reform. Its efforts have been directed more especially to the primary work of correcting evils in the construction and management of jails and poorhouses, and the distribution of public alms in the towns and counties of the State. I have personal knowledge that, while the purpose of public charity has been more fully met, and the subjects of public care and control have received more humane attention, the cost to the public treasury for this service has been largely lessened by the better methods introduced through the instrumentality of our State Board of Correction and Charities. The details of its work, which will be submitted here, will reveal this to you more fully. I refer to it especially for the purpose of impressing you with the fact that Minnesota's greeting on this occasion is emphasized by the practical knowledge she has of the benefits to humanity which flow from your efforts. Her welcome is only limited by her hospitable resources, and I again assure you that the earnest

wish of all her people is that you may take to your homes the most delightful memories of the associations connected with the thirteenth annual session of your Convention.

ADDRESS OF HON. C. D. KERR,

ACTING MAYOR OF ST. PAUL.

*Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen,*—I desire to make our welcome cordial, broad, and generous, as well as official. No lover of his kind could look upon an assemblage like this unmoved. Minnesota, for a State so young, has welcomed to her hospitality some notable gatherings, but never, in my estimation, one to compare with this. Merchant princes and railroad magnates, whose faith had been crowned with the fruition of a continent spanned with iron bands, came here to celebrate the event. General assemblages of the Church have been with us; but now, for the first time, we have a concourse of men and women whom the sweet influences of charity alone have drawn together. I notice by your last annual report that, in extending the invitation, which you so generously accepted, to hold your Convention in St. Paul, it was claimed that your coming would benefit the entire North-west; that it would aid in shaping institutional legislation, and rouse public sentiment in reference to the subjects discussed; and these, among other reasons, were potential in determining your choice. I may be permitted to emphasize here the claims then made. There is no lack of charitable men and women in these two cities and the tributary North-west, and, for a community so young, much has been done to give intelligent form and shape to their generous impulses; but it is a common experience, which I need not suggest to you, that individual charity and segregated efforts in cities and communities are of but little avail. What we need is the benefit of the combined wisdom and loving kindness of the nation, to solidify the energies and sympathies of the people, and set them to work with a common purpose and for a common end. This we hope to gain from your Conference.

Again, in a community such as this, emphasized by its rapid growth in wealth and population, the temptation is strong to give money rather than time and personal attention. This is simply shirking responsibility. The so-called liberality, or free-handedness, that gives money without investigation is not true charity. I sometimes think we would better be parsimonious, except for the reflex influence upon ourselves, than liberal in the sense I have indicated.

And now I trust your stay with us may be pleasant ; and I hope that, when you shall leave, it will be with bodies refreshed, and with minds and hearts stimulated to greater exercise of your beneficent work. I know that we shall gain from this Conference a livelier sense of our own responsibilities and a better knowledge how to meet them.

ADDRESS OF RUSSELL BLAKELEY, ESQ.,

PRESIDENT OF THE CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

*Ladies and Gentlemen,*—It is a pleasure to look such an audience in the face, and I am glad of the opportunity. We regard this as one of the greatest occasions that has taken place within our borders. The work in which you are engaged is certainly one of the highest that is given to men to do. You give your best thought, time, and efforts toward alleviating distress, to promoting the welfare of the poor, to liberating those who are in prison, to restoring the sight of those who are blind. This, I take it, is the province of the members of this Conference from morning until night, year after year. It is work that is enjoined upon us all. The hope and expectation that we shall see righteousness cover the earth and great peace throughout all the land, that all tears shall be wiped from all faces,—these are the hopes that lie close to the hearts of Christian people. They are the hopes that lie close to your hearts. To bring about this condition is one of the most admirable aims which it is possible for us to have before us as a people.

Let me say in conclusion — not perhaps in the words of the poet, but in the same spirit — that I hope, when the angel “with great awakening light” shall show the book in which are written the names of those whom the love of God hath blessed, the names of the members of this Conference may lead all the rest.

RESPONSE OF EX-PRESIDENT HAYES.

*Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen,*—A wise and far-seeing statesman of New York, Mr. Seward, thirty years ago, speaking in this place, predicted the coming of the population and prosperity which we now see, and rejoice to see, gathered at the head of navigation and at the falls of the Mississippi. We are filled with wonder and delight as we note the fulfilment of Mr. Seward’s prediction in the rapid and vast material progress of this part of the United States. A few years earlier, Mr. Seward wrote a note to his



friend, Thurlow Weed, from the very bosom of our best American civilization, his home in Auburn. It illustrates his character and courage, and serves my purpose by fixing attention upon the gratifying advance that has been made in the last forty years toward the practical realization of the divine idea of the brotherhood of man in dealing with the children of misfortune and with those who fill the ranks of vice and crime. The note is dated Auburn, May 29, 1846, and reads as follows:—

There is a busy war around me to drive me from defending and securing a fair trial for the negro, Freeman. People now rejoice that they did not lynch him; but they have all things prepared for an *auto-da-fé*, with the solemnities of a mock trial. No priest (except one Universalist), no Levite, no lawyer, no man, no woman, has visited him. He is deaf, deserted, ignorant; and his conduct is unexplainable on any principle of sanity. It is natural that he should turn to me to defend him. If he does, I shall do so. This will raise a storm of prejudice and passion, which will try the fortitude of my friends. But I shall do my duty. I care not whether I am ever to be forgiven for it or not.

The condition at Mr. Seward's home forty years ago was the condition in our country everywhere. The prison, the poorhouse, and the other dens of wretchedness where the "bruised reeds" of our fellow-men were deposited, were unseen and unvisited by priest and Levite, by man and woman. Society, at least, took almost no note of them, and made little or no provision for examination or report concerning them. What these neglected places were is now but too well known. I will spare you from any attempt to spread before you the horrors and misery that were disclosed when their doors were opened. I prefer to call attention to the beneficent change that is surely coming, and which it is the chief purpose of the National Conference of Charities and Correction to make thorough and complete. In Ohio,—and Ohio claims no pre-eminence in this matter,—the law provides for the appointment by the proper court in each county of a Board of Visitors, whose duty it is to make frequent personal examination of the jails, infirmaries, and other similar places, and to report as to their condition. These boards consist of five persons, three women and two men; and, as a general statement, their duties are well performed. Thus, air and light and all wholesome influences are poured into those hitherto neglected and hopeless abodes; and life and health and a real reform naturally and of necessity follow.



A large part of the great evils that afflict society and imperil its best interests vanish or are greatly diminished the very moment that they are thoroughly investigated, thoroughly understood, and their essential nature exposed. With the public judgment enlightened and aroused, the true remedy is soon and easily found. Hence, this organization styled the National Conference of Charities and Correction. The faith of this society is that intelligent public discussion based upon exact and full information of all the phases of the problem, numerous and multiform as they are, will evolve its solution as surely as the perfect plant will spring from its seed in well-prepared soil.

The hasty and unreflecting demand at the very threshold, as the previous question in all cases, a remedy. "What is your remedy? No need of discussion," they say, "unless you have a remedy." We reply: Not too fast, good friends. We may not be ready with the remedy. Agree with us first as to the evils of the present situation and as to the necessity for a change; next, be earnest about it; resolve to find the remedy, and victory is not far off. The anti-slavery agitators did not discover the measure that destroyed slavery. Nevertheless, their discussions led straight, by ways they did not see, to the end they aimed at. The fires they kindled did not consume slavery, but they lighted the way for Lincoln and emancipation. The problem which is the concern of this society is very large. It relates to the treatment and welfare of a great multitude,—not for their own sakes merely, but also and chiefly for the well-being of society. The blind, the deaf and dumb, the imbecile, the insane, the neglected young, the helpless poor, the criminal,—of both sexes and all ages,—in short, all who are enrolled in the ranks of misfortune and guilt, who for the general good must be in the care and custody of the public, are to be studied, considered, relieved, reformed, and either restored to society self-sustaining and honest or kept where harm cannot come from them or to them. Our statistical information on this subject is neither full nor exact. An approximation is all that we can attempt. A careful estimate for the United States would probably show something like this:—

Requiring public care or control, . . . . .	500,000
Men and women employed in this work, . . . . .	50,000
Amount expended annually on this account by the public, . . . . .	\$75,000,000
Value of property devoted to this use, . . . . .	500,000,000

Statistical tables cannot tell the whole story, nor the most weighty part of the story, even if they were complete and accurate. The interests and feelings of families and individuals are constantly and closely affected and touched at the tenderest points by what the public does or fails to do with respect to this most difficult and necessary work. If we regard it simply as one of the public duties, on public account, the figures given place it in the front rank of the highest and most responsible tasks devolved upon government. It is therefore wise and essential, especially in a country like ours, where the law and its execution are so dependent on public opinion, that there should be organized bodies of active and intelligent citizens devoted to the work of creating and sustaining a sound public sentiment on the questions which must come before legislatures and executive officers.

Such a body of citizens is the National Conference of Charities and Correction, which will hold meetings in this city during the next six days. An active member of a society with kindred objects, the National Prison Reform Association, and not at all connected with this society heretofore, except as a looker-on in full sympathy with its aims and methods, I may speak of it, certainly, not without partiality, but without embarrassment or reserve.

Its discussions, its papers, its publications in volumes and in periodicals and newspapers, and the conclusions which it announces, are entitled to the most unqualified commendation. That this is not an overstatement will appear upon consideration of its membership. Present, and taking part in all the proceedings of its meetings, are the most distinguished practical experts, who have the control and management of the leading benevolent and penal institutions of our country, where patients, pupils, convicts, and inmates of every name are cured, controlled, educated, reformed, and punished. Name the famous prisons, asylums, reformatories, and other similar institutions, and the eminent specialists at their head, and you will find you have named the prominent members of this society. In like manner, the students and writers on this subject, and those who have travelled and observed what has been done abroad, are active participants in the work of this association. The Boards of State Charities of the several States are always fully and ably represented in its meetings. Practice and theory, experiment and speculation, experience and observation, the man of books and the man of works, are here found side by side. No one familiar with the debates and writings of the society during a number of years

can fail to have noticed the increasing harmony and interest of all of the elements here brought together.

The general character and aims of the society I cannot better give than by quoting from Rev. F. H. Wines, in his excellent periodical, the *International Record of Charities and Corrections*,—a periodical which ought to be in the hands of every friend of the humane treatment of the unfortunate and the erring:—

We hope to make it apparent:—

That the care of the criminal and unfortunates is a profession which requires for its development a high degree of ability, force, and learning.

That a lamentable amount of ignorance exists, even among those who have charge of charitable and correctional enterprises.

That this ignorance may be overcome by study.

That the entire charitable and correctional work of the country (and of the world) is one work, with numerous branches; and that those who are engaged in it, in any capacity, are co-workers, between whom there should exist the largest possible mutual confidence and co-operation.

That the relief of suffering is an essential part of religion; and that the command to heal the sick, cleanse the lepers, raise the dead, and cast out devils, is part of the same commission as the command to preach the gospel.

That Christian unity is best promoted by active participation in humanitarian work.

That the protection of the weak and the elevation of the degraded are the highest function of government.

That much of our present legislation respecting crime and other social evils is crude and inoperative, if not contrary to correct principles.

That the financial burdens imposed by the existence and growth of social evils are so great that every owner of property is directly interested in their suppression and prevention.

That, for success in the effort to limit their extension, united and organized effort is essential.

That every man, woman, or child who will assist to bring about any needed reform is of use, and will be welcome to the ranks of those engaged in this difficult undertaking, regardless of any political or religious opinions which he may hold.

The evils this society seeks to prevent, to remove, and to mitigate, are at every door. No man's family is safely entrenched against them. Blindness, deafness, idiocy, and insanity have brought sorrow to many a happy home. The vices and crimes of the forsaken and the outcast often reach the manliest array of sons and the loveliest of daughters. Society is so compacted together, and Providence

hath so ordained and doth so govern things, that, whether we would have it so or not, we must be and are our brothers' keepers. There is a taint in vice and crime, and in human degradation and wretchedness, which is indeed a blood poison that spreads through and through the social system until it gets to the very heart. This serious truth imposes a duty which no society can afford to neglect. Civilized society cannot neglect it and live. No Christian society ever will neglect it.

RESPONSE OF F. B. SANBORN.

*Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen,*—I suppose that the best answer we can make to the welcome which has been so generously and cordially extended to us is the answer which we have already made. We are here, Mr. Chairman, and here in response to your invitation, confident that the hospitality which you offer comes from the heart; and we are prepared to join with you in those labors which the gentleman who preceded me has so admirably described. We shall do what we can in this direction, and we know that we could not do it in a better place than in the State of Minnesota and the city of St. Paul.

One of the gentlemen who has joined in extending the welcome to us has spoken appropriately of the spirit of pessimism, which seems to prevail at the present time more extensively than in any former period; and, in reflecting upon that, it occurred to me that something might be said in regard to a subject that pessimists are very fond of discussing,—the evils of our own country. We distrust ourselves overmuch. We are not usually charged with modesty as a people; and yet I think that Americans, on the whole, are more distrustful of their own country and themselves than any other great people in the world. We complain a great deal of our institutions, the way they work, and the results which come from them. But it seems to me that, in this work of charity which engages us, as in all other great enterprises in which the American people have been called to take part, we cannot fail to see the great advantage which the United States enjoys over most of the nations of the world. The opportunities that we possess in some directions are well known; and the community in which we now meet is one of the best illustrations of the opportunity which the American people possess and enjoy in extending their material interests. But it is no less true that, in the domain of charity and correction, in dealing with those

evils which Mr. Hayes has so well pointed out, the American people enjoy advantages which do not exist elsewhere. We have two very great facilities in every good work in this country. One is our equality. Nothing more promotes the real work of charity or more facilitates every kind of social reform than equality of condition. Wherever these evils exist,—and they exist everywhere, and will always exist to some extent,—we find that they are more easily removed and corrected when equality of condition is most generally enjoyed.

Again, we have in America another aid,—an ease of co-operation with each other which does not exist, I will venture to say, in any other land in the world. The very absence of classes, of hereditary traditions and institutions which have become embedded in the habits and feelings of the people, gives us an ease of uniting with each other which is not found elsewhere. Equality and co-operation, then, are the great weapons with which we are to undertake this contest that is continually before us.

You have spoken, Mr. Chairman, of the extreme East from which I come. It is a very small State,—the State of Massachusetts,—but it happens to have a history longer than that of the larger States; and we have therefore been compelled, earlier than the citizens of some of the newer States, to consider and to face these evils. And such success as we have had in New England has come from this fact that we have been thus compelled for many years, for centuries, to consider them. I believe, however,—whatever success we may have gained in the older States of the Union,—that it is possible, in these younger communities, to secure results much more important in a shorter time. The problem has become simplified by the conditions which exist in the West and the North-west; and we look to the people of this section for more instruction than the East will be able to offer. We come to learn, and not to teach. I think it will be the voice of every Eastern man, who has examined attentively the charitable and correctional institutions in this part of the country, that he can learn more here, in many directions, than in any of the older communities. I believe that, before we are through with this session, we shall all be convinced of this.

We feel your hospitality, we respond to your welcome, and we are happy to be here.

## ADDRESS OF THE PRESIDENT,

HON. WILLIAM HOWARD NEFF.

*Ladies and Gentlemen,*—Thirty-nine years ago, I visited St. Paul. My journal describes it as “a little village, four miles from St. Peter’s.” A trader’s hut and a few skin lodges of Sioux Indians occupied the bluff. The name of Minneapolis was unknown. An abandoned saw-mill at the Falls of St. Anthony was the only trace of civilization.

The enchanter’s wand has passed over the scene, and the most gorgeous visions of the *Arabian Nights* have been more than realized. A new world has been created. The Indian has disappeared. Commerce, literature, science, and religion have enthroned themselves upon the beautiful prairie; and charity so abounds that the representatives of the whole nation have been invited here to recount the progress of the last year in all good works, and to devise projects of enlarged benevolence for the future.

The Thirteenth National Conference of Charities and Correction is now in session, under the most favorable auspices and conditions; and, with a deep sense of gratitude for the past and hopefulness for the future, we begin our deliberations. The Conferences are the natural outgrowth of the Boards of State Charities. In twelve States of the Union, laws have been enacted in compliance with which the governor has appointed a number of persons, varying from six to fourteen, equally selected from both political parties, to supervise the charitable, penal, and reformatory institutions of the State. In the best organized boards, the governor is the presiding officer, with a vice-president appointed by the board to relieve him of the details of committee work, and to preside in his absence. These men make the whole subject of charitable and reformatory work an especial study. By reading, travel, consultation with each other, and in the National Conferences with those engaged in similar labors in other States, they prepare themselves for their work. Their powers are advisory, supervisory, and investigatory: advisory, as to the establishment of new institutions and modes of management, often saving hundreds of thousands of dollars to the States in which they exist;



supervisory, as to the methods employed in the institutions, their general management and efficiency, yet wisely leaving the local trustees of each institution untrammelled, and with the full responsibility of their position resting upon them; investigatory, with all the powers of a congressional committee to send for persons and papers, to compel the attendance of witnesses, and to pay them for their time, so that no wrong may be committed in the name of charity, and that personal profit and self-interest may not dare to prey upon the sacred trust committed to their hands by a generous and confiding people. The first and most important lesson to be learned in the administration of public charities is that not one dollar of profit is to accrue, in any shape or form, to the trustees and officers in charge. In some States, the laws on this subject are very severe; and the solicitation of or participation in contracts or emoluments is made a penitentiary offence.

When this is thoroughly understood, and especially when no pay, except for actual travelling expenses, is given to members of the Boards of State Charities or to the trustees of benevolent and reformatory institutions, the governor will find a class of citizens at his disposal for such positions, who will aid and not embarrass him, who will be safe advisers and judicious counsellors in the most important and most useful department of his own official labors.

It will be evident that information respecting the institutions of other States, their trials, difficulties, and successes, is most important to the proper fulfilment of these responsible duties. Therefore, the Reports from the States constitute an essential feature of these National Conferences. They are especially important to new States whose institutions are not yet organized; and, in this respect alone, the National Conferences are invaluable. Where hundreds of thousands and millions of dollars are to be expended, the people have a right to expect that the best and most economical systems shall be introduced; and the time is not far distant when an enlightened public sentiment will demand the organization of Boards of State Charities in all the States in which they do not now exist. The people cannot afford to do without the fullest information before they freely expend their money; and it is trifling with the highest instincts of our nature to ask them to throw away their hard earned and freely given contributions on systems and plans which have been found unsuitable and uselessly expensive in other States. Therefore, a considerable portion of our time will be given — and, I think, wisely given — to hearing the Reports from all the States and Territories.

No subject has engaged more closely the attention of these Conferences, and none has developed a greater amount of intelligent interest, than the care and treatment of that numerous class who are deprived of the full exercise of their reason. In no department has greater progress been made; and nothing illustrates more clearly the great benefit of these National Conferences than the improved condition of the insane. Chemical and mechanical restraints have been abandoned. The close supervision of attendants and officers has greatly diminished the abuse of patients, and the summary dismissal and punishment of those engaged in such offences have made them rare and exceptional. Kindness is the rule, neglect the exception, and cruelty is almost phenomenal. The amelioration of the condition of these unfortunates by the judicious increase of their personal freedom; the number of open wards in all the asylums; the attention paid to the voluntary employment of patients; the proper use of amusements and recreation; the introduction of women as physicians into the female wards; the adaptation of diet to the classes of mental and physical disease,—all mark great and most encouraging progress. In no department of benevolent work has the increased benefit of the patient been so accompanied with reduced expense as in the treatment of the insane; and, in this single instance, the utility of the National Conferences would be most amply vindicated. Expensive palaces are already becoming relics of the past; and the asylums of the near future, in their cottage simplicity of structure, in their admirable facilities for the classification of patients according to their mental, moral, and social characteristics, and in their home-like influence, will be economical, attractive, and satisfactory. The usefulness of the National Conferences has been remarkably manifest in the reduced *per capita* of expense in these institutions, as in all others of a charitable and reformatory nature. A fair comparison of expenses in asylums similarly situated, with a like number of patients, has been very beneficial, and has started good trustees upon many a visiting tour to ascertain the reason and method of diminished expenditure, always resulting in mutual improvement and benefit. In no department of this work has greater progress been made than in the treatment of the chronic insane; and I ask for the papers that will be presented to you, on this subject, your most careful consideration. Closely allied with the care of the insane is the treatment of feeble-minded and idiotic persons. In several States, institutions for the education of feeble-minded youth are in successful operation; and the results are most



encouraging. The usefulness of these efforts has been limited and greatly hindered by the lack of custodial care for feeble-minded adults. While experience has shown that they can be educated in the learning of the schools to a considerable extent, and can be successfully trained in farming and several industrial arts to the capacity of self-support, it has also demonstrated that they cannot be instructed in self-respect and self-restraint sufficiently to enable them to go out into the world to earn their living. If protected from society, and prohibited themselves from preying upon it, they can undoubtedly support themselves by their own labor. In some of the States, custodial institutions for women, and also for men, have been founded; and the result has fully demonstrated their usefulness and their benefit to society. They are self-sustaining, and are very valuable assistants in preventing the increase of pauperism and crime.

Prevention is better and more satisfactory than cure, but its full work can only be accomplished among the young. One of our committees has this special work in charge; and the papers which will be presented to you on this subject will be exceedingly interesting and instructive. Education is the great remedy; but, to be complete, it must be of a threefold nature,—education of the head, of the hands, and of the heart. One of the most unpleasant results of our statistics is that ignorance is *not* the parent of crime. In the Ohio Penitentiary, only eight per cent. of the inmates cannot read, only nine per cent. cannot write. Lack of knowledge of the means of earning an honest living is a more potent cause, yet even this will not cover the whole ground. We may give to dependent children even, if you please, a high-school education; we may instruct them in the industrial arts until they attain great proficiency: yet, if their moral nature is neglected, if they are not taught their responsibility to man and their accountability to God, our efforts will be very unsuccessful. "Thou shalt love the Lord thy God with all thy heart, and thy neighbor as thyself," is the divine command, and was given by One who knew all that was in the heart of man. Just in proportion as our efforts reach and control the moral nature will they be productive of permanent good. This subject, to a greater extent than ever before, is engaging the attention of those deeply interested in the reform schools for boys and girls, and will very properly be brought to your notice in a marked degree.

Next to the education of the heart is the training of the hands to useful and remunerative labor. The careful eyes of those devoted to this subject have perceived that some departments of labor are

more desirable than others. Those institutions in which dependent and even delinquent girls are instructed in professional cooking have constant demand for their graduates as fast as they are satisfied to allow them to re-enter the world. Remunerative situations are at once offered to them, and one of the great temptations to sin is thus removed. In the same manner, the instruction of boys in farming, in tree culture, in horticulture, as well as in the mechanic arts, enables them to obtain places in the country, removed from the vicious allurements of large towns, and prepares the way for their future usefulness. Institution life is not desirable when long protracted; and when correct principles are properly implanted, and the knowledge acquired for obtaining an honest livelihood, good judgment very properly affords an opportunity for trial in some home, humble though it be, where freedom and responsibility may be combined, and where the way may be opened to that correct self-reliance and honest independence which are the birthright of every American. Very properly, therefore, the judicious training of the young will occupy a considerable portion of our attention; and the committees on the "Kindergarten" and on "Preventive Work among Children" will present to you able papers on these most interesting themes.

The subjects of labor in prisons and reformatories, the progress of prison reform, and the condition of federal prisons and prisoners will occupy the thoughts of the wisest among us. "In the multitude of counsellors there is safety"; and in this department more, perhaps, than in any other is the utility of the National Conferences recognized. Practical men test the theories, experience announces the verdict. While it would be presumptuous to enter upon a discussion of these topics, I may be permitted to say that there will be comparatively little progress in prison reform, especially at the South and West, until it is clearly demonstrated that well-regulated prisons may be made self-sustaining. The labor of twelve or fifteen hundred able-bodied men, who have no house-rent to pay, no opportunity to purchase liquor, who never get out of work, and who work all day, should certainly be sufficient to support them in an economical manner. It is not right that honest, hard-working tax-payers should be burdened with the support of convicts, in order that theories may be ventilated or demagogues kept in office. There is no incompatibility between judicious prison reform and honest and remunerative prison labor. With directors carefully appointed by the governor from among the best men of the State, and serving without compensation; with a warden capable of filling the cashiership or

presidency of a national bank, with a commensurate salary, and with a knowledge that his position is for life or during good behavior ; with a public sentiment which will demand the entire separation of all penal as well as charitable and reformatory institutions from the grasp of party politics,—there will be but little difficulty in selecting a suitable system of labor, in making the prison self-sustaining, and in maintaining the most approved measures of reform. Nothing is more imperatively demanded at the present time in the United States than the emancipation of all benevolent, penal, and reformatory institutions from partisan control. In the doubtful States, the institutions are the foot-ball for contending parties ; and all the wisdom and good judgment of one administration may be nullified by another. Stability is an essential to success ; and, for many problems, time is the best solution.

One of the great objects of punishment is the prevention of crime, and it is possible that this may be attained in many cases by the reformation of the offender. During the last year, great progress has been made in this direction ; and it is now announced as possible that seventy per cent. of first offenders may be reclaimed. The papers and discussions on this subject will be among the most interesting and important that will be presented to you.

It would be improper to close these introductory remarks without a reference to the organization of charity and the statistics on the causes of pauperism and crime. The problem of the stability of the Republic is to be solved in our great cities. The relief of suffering, the judicious assistance in giving work, and thus securing self-support, the protection against imposture, the helping hand which preserves self-respect and discourages permanent pauperism, are receiving more attention now than ever before. No questions in political economy can be more important, none more worthy of the attention of the statesman or the well-wisher of the human race. Philosophy has brought to bear upon this social problem its greatest power, experience has guided the solution, religion has touched and illumined it with heavenly grace, and woman, with gentle hand and sympathetic power, has, with her tender ministrations, relieved the suffering form and aching heart. This great subject, in all its details, is worthy of your best attention and most earnest thought.

No one is satisfied with the mere administration of relief. Our province is to search deeper for the cause. We need the statistics of the causes of pauperism and crime, we need the investigations of one of our ablest committees into the great subjects of immigration and

migration, to enable us to understand this absorbing topic in all its bearings. Pauperism is not a plant of American growth. It is not congenial to our soil; but, once introduced, it spreads with great rapidity. We must extirpate it,—not by cruelty, but by kindness; not by crushing out poverty, but by raising it up, to breathe the pure air, to feed upon the bounteous store a kind Providence has furnished in this highly favored land, so that, with stout heart and strengthened hand, it may go forth to earn an honest living, and to rejoice with us in the freedom we enjoy.

Such, ladies and gentlemen, is a brief outline of the work before you,—a labor of love, upon which you can ask the divine blessing, which develops the best faculties of our nature, and reminds us that we were created in the image of God. The Conference has no legislative or executive authority. Our bread is cast upon the waters, but it will return before many days. Each one is free to adopt or to reject any suggestion made. Each one may contribute something to the common treasury of thought. We meet for mutual improvement, for mutual encouragement. The strong may assist the weak, the new draw wisdom from the old. All can assist in the noble work, encouraged by the results already accomplished, stimulated to redoubled effort by the misery it may be our privilege to relieve, the blessings we may be permitted to bestow. Let us conduct our deliberations in the spirit of charity, "that envieth not, vaunteth not itself, is not puffed up, doth not behave itself unseemly, is not easily provoked; rejoiceth not in iniquity, but rejoiceth in the truth," remembering "that now abideth faith, hope, charity, these three; but the greatest of these is charity."

## II.

### State Boards of Charities.

#### REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON STATE BOARDS OF CHARITIES.

BY H. H. GILES, CHAIRMAN.

Twelve States have Boards of Charities,—Connecticut, Illinois, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Kansas, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, and Wisconsin. While the legal provisions under which they were organized differ widely, their general purpose is to bring the institutions they supervise directly under the eye of the State. No new State Board has been organized during the year. A bill to organize one was introduced into the legislature of Iowa, but failed to become a law. So far as we have learned, all acknowledged the necessity of such a supervising board as was proposed, yet it was objected to, in that "it created some new offices"; and "an economic wave struck the legislature," and the bill got no further than out of the hands of the committee. The bill, as introduced, was crude in its general character and wanting in details.

The main function of all the State Boards in existence is advisory. In some States, administrative powers have been added since their formation. This is notably the case in New York, Pennsylvania, and Massachusetts, in which they have been made Commissioners of Emigration, under the provisions of an Act of Congress, approved Aug. 3, 1882. In the State of New York especially, the new duty imposed affords protection to the Western and North-western States as well as New York. The city of New York has been called the dumping-ground for the crippled, blind, lunatic, insane, and other infirm paupers from the different countries of Europe, sent here that those countries may escape the burden of their support. These three State Boards have authority to return all the pauper class to the country from which they came.

In several States, the boards have advisory supervision over all the charitable, penal, and correctional institutions supported under State, county, or any corporate authority. Michigan, Minnesota, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin are in this class. We are not informed, neither can we imagine, why this supervisory power was limited in any State to any institutions or class of institutions, and not extended to all where persons are detained on compulsion or held as wards of the State.

The Wisconsin Board also possesses administrative power in the removal of the chronic insane from one institution to another, and has also the power to give or withhold State aid to counties for the care of the chronic insane, under certain conditions. In Kansas and Rhode Island, the State Boards are purely administrative, as they are the trustees of the State institutions. The Connecticut Board of Charities inspects all incorporated hospitals and all institutions where persons are detained by compulsion. It may correct any abuses found to exist therein. The peculiarity of the Connecticut law organizing the board is that it provides that the board shall consist of three men and two women. Massachusetts has now a Board of Lunacy and Charity, recent legislation having made the Board of Health a separate department. The State lunatic hospitals, State Almshouse, State Primary School, State Workhouse, and Industrial School for Girls are under its supervision. When directed by the governor, it may assume and exercise the duties of boards of trustees of said institutions; it may transfer paupers from one institution to another.

The Illinois Board of Commissioners of Public Charities consists of five members. It is authorized and required to visit all the charitable and correctional institutions of the State, except prisons receiving State aid. It is also made the duty of the board, at least once in each year, to visit each city and county almshouse or other place where insane may be confined. While each of the eight State charitable institutions and the State Reform School are under the direct control of a local board of trustees, no money for their use can be drawn from the State treasury, without the certificate of the State Board. A committee of the Pennsylvania Board acts as a commission on lunacy.

It is thus seen that the executive duties of the boards that possess administrative power are limited. As a rule, the suggestions and recommendations of the several State Boards are headed by the legislatures of their respective States, and embodied in their statutes.



*Work of State Boards.*—The general duties of such a board, by whatever name called, should be to secure the just, humane, and economical administrations of public charities and corrections. To secure this end, it should supervise all the charitable, reformatory, and penal institutions of the State, all hospitals, industrial schools, and orphan asylums organized under any law of the State, and become familiar with all the circumstances affecting their management and usefulness.

It should also thoroughly investigate from time to time, and as often as once in each year, all the poorhouses of the State, and inquire into their sanitary condition, ascertain how many of each sex, how many insane, idiotic, blind, deaf and dumb, and how many children are supported in each, and at what cost to the public. It should also ascertain how many are supported at public cost that are not proper subjects of charity, and under what circumstances affecting their health and morals. All such visits should be unannounced beforehand to keepers or managers, so as to see as far as possible the every-day workings of the institution. We might say here that all official visits to institutions, of whatever name or character, should be made when not expected. Members of this Conference might mention many amusing episodes in their own experience in this connection.

The board should also visit and thoroughly inspect from time to time all the jails, houses of correction, city prisons, police stations, and all places in which persons convicted or suspected of crime are confined, and collect important statistics concerning the inmates. It should ascertain their sanitary condition; their arrangement for the separation of the sexes and the separation of hardened offenders from youthful criminals, and the latter from persons suspected of crime; the employment of prisoners, and what efforts are made for their reformation; and generally collect information of all important facts affecting the reformation of criminals and the diminution of crime.

It should also be the duty of a State Board to inquire into the official conduct of all trustees, managers, directors, and superintendents, and all other officers and employes of public institutions, as well as into the condition of all parts of the buildings and grounds belonging to or connected therewith, and into all other matters and things pertaining to their usefulness and good management. It should also instruct all such officials and employes in the wise performance of their duties. The reports of the board should annually embody full information of the condition of all the institutions under

its supervision. It should also furnish from year to year full and comparative statistics of the population of all said institutions, showing the growth or decrease of crime and dependence, and report the probable cause of such increase or decrease.

To meet the want of fuller information in relation to crime and pauperism, the board should be empowered to furnish jails, prisons, and poorhouses with registers providing for full descriptive lists of all prisoners confined and all paupers cared for. As a rule, the information to be obtained from registers in use is very meagre. Authority should be conferred upon the board to introduce into all public institutions a uniform system of book-keeping and accounts, and to require analyzed lists of expenditure, so as to enable comparisons to be made.

A State Board should make its influence felt in the community and the State. It should be ready to commend the good in the conduct of State and county officials who have charge of public institutions, and just in its criticisms of what is wrong. It should first try by personal appeals to influence officials to reform abuses, if any exist, and, in case of failure, appeal to the great public. As a rule, the impulses of the people are right; and, when enlightened, they take the side of humanity and justice. While opposed to any extravagance and waste, they willingly contribute to render the condition of the dependent class comfortable, and favor the humane treatment of criminals.

The work of visitation and inspection herein outlined should be systematically and thoroughly done. The buildings, and especially those used for dwellings, should be examined from basement to attic, all drains and sewers looked after, all dormitories and sleeping rooms inspected, and their cleanliness and means of ventilation examined. Particularly should cellars and basement rooms be scrutinized; and, if offensive odors exist, their source should be detected. This applies more particularly to poorhouses, yet remotely to all public institutions. It should also be ascertained what means of escape for the inmates, in case of fire, exist, and what means of quenching a fire, should one occur. No persons are so well qualified to make these official visits as the members of the boards themselves and their secretaries. They are the direct representatives of the State, and clothed with the State's authority, and hence command respect; while personal contact with the inmates, employés, and managers of the places visited will alone give them that familiarity with their condition and wants so essential to a wise discharge of their duties.



*The Powers of State Boards.*—Whether State Boards shall be simply advisory or possess authority to make and enforce rules and regulations for the government of public institutions has been heretofore discussed in this National Conference. The general sentiment has seemed to be that they should have little authority except to scold. While firm believers in the power of moral suasion and its influence in reforming men and in correcting public evils, there often occur occasions when the summary exercise of the police power of the State in the interest of humanity is demanded.

When first organized, we would advise that the executive functions of the board be limited, but that great latitude be given for inquiry, investigation, and in its reports. If the board does its duty, public confidence in its usefulness will become established, and its powers will be gradually increased from year to year. It is not a question of how little, how great, or to what extent these boards shall be given administrative authority; for no definite answer could be given to any such general questions. They can only be answered for each State.

We think that in the coming years they will be given greater control and supervision of all public and private charitable and benevolent institutions, and authority to condemn all jails, lock-ups, and other places where human beings are confined to the injury of their health.

If State aid were granted to well-managed county almshouses, the power to withhold such aid would be a means by which to correct any evils in their management. This principle is introduced in the working of the county asylum law that provides for the care of the chronic insane in Wisconsin, and its practical operation in that State has been productive of the best results. All authority conferred should be used discreetly. All abuses discovered should, if possible, be corrected quietly, except in flagrant cases where punishment is merited; and then the board should act as a jury of inquest in ascertaining all the facts and aiding in the prosecution of the offenders. Any member should be authorized to examine witnesses, administer oaths, and take depositions.

Yet the great usefulness of a State Board, when properly constituted, resides in the moral power it exercises rather than in any authority conferred by law. It stands as the representative of the State, of all the people of the State. It is the eye of the State looking into the cells of prisoners, the wards of hospitals, and poorhouses, and scanning the acts of all officials and employés. It must possess an intimate knowledge of the former, and hold the latter to a rigid accountability. It must be free to expose all wrong, in order to correct

abuses. It must use not only its regular annual reports, but the public press and especially the local press. Public institutions in themselves possess little inherent vitality to develop on lines of progress. As a rule, they run in well-worn ruts. With the average character of officials elected by the people, there is little chance for a healthy reform in jail or poorhouse management.

*Membership of State Boards.*—The efficiency of a State Board depends more upon the peculiar qualifications of its individual members than upon the provisions of its organizing act. However wisely framed the latter may be, it will serve little useful purpose, if administered in a careless and bungling manner. Similarity of mental traits is not desirable. The world of thought and activity is ever changing, and follows general laws. The ideal gives place to the practical, when it touches the needs of humanity. Hence, the inestimable value of warring opinions and the coming together of different temperaments. The first requirement is for persons of independent character and strong convictions. We do not mean that they shall have dogged obstinacy, for there is no place for the merely pugnacious and combative. They would be simply obstructives. "Friends," said the poet Browning, "I have looked through your eyes: now use mine."

Neither can those whose ideas run in well-worn traditional ruts be made highly useful. Hobby riders should also be avoided. While such have their missions in the world, and fill a useful place in the economy of social reform, that which makes them useful in private life would impair their usefulness in a State Board. Neither cranks nor bigots are wanted. With independent intellectual convictions, honest differences of opinion must be tolerated, and discussion allowed to harmonize conflicting views. Two classes of persons must be left off,—the one who is always right, and knows it to be so; and the one who never has an opinion on any question.

We would try to emphasize this part of our report in an attempt to reach the ear and the understanding of the power that nominates, appoints, elects, or confirms the memberships of State Boards. Sympathy for the erring and unfortunate is the first requisite, yet it must be balanced by a sound judgment and an intelligent comprehension of its true place. Philanthropy, but not sentimentality, must furnish the motive power. Men and women of broad views, who can apprehend the correlation that pervades all departments of their works, should be chosen.

Again, good solid common sense must be the base rock upon

which to build. Finally, never let political services be rewarded by an appointment on a State Board, and, as a rule, shun all who seek the place. Once organized, make no changes, except for greater fitness or for unfitness.

Experience, and the knowledge gained in the service, are almost beyond estimate in value. The State cannot afford to take the risk of supplanting an experienced member by the appointment of an untried one.

*A Paid Board.*—If the work of a State Board as outlined in this report is to be done thoroughly or even reasonably well, it will require the whole time of at least five persons, in the larger States. In some States, even a greater number would be necessary. The old adage that "what is worth doing at all is worth doing well" applies with force to the matter we are considering. For the performance of these duties, a reasonable *per diem* or salary should be paid, together with all expenses. The State should be governed by the same rule as corporations. It should pay a fair price for services rendered, and require the best service possible, and allow its servants to feel that they are fairly remunerated.

We are aware that the Conference in its reports and discussions on this subject has not favored the payment of any salary for services rendered on these boards. The sentiment that has found expression on the pages of our Proceedings is commendable; yet the reasons given go only to the extent that sordid-minded men (not women) will seek the appointment, and that weak ones may be appointed. On the other hand, it may be true that many of those best qualified for the service are among that large class not blessed with that blissful state of pecuniary independence that will warrant them in giving the State an unpaid service to the extent that its needs require.

*Conclusion.*—We will not assume to utter words of prophecy, but the history of the past affords reasonable grounds for belief that the future is full of promise. A good beginning has been made. State Boards now organized will be continued, and will do better and better work; and new boards will be appointed. With added years of service, they will accumulate valuable experience and increased wisdom. The little we knew in years past teaches us the lesson of charity and toleration. With our growth in knowledge of duty, I trust we have "grown in grace," at least in the exercise of love, kindness, and good-will. How best to reduce pauperism, lessen crime, and more humanely and economically care for the insane and restore their darkened minds to right reason will be learned only by

patient study of those subtle physical and more subtle spiritual laws that control matter and mind. As we better understand their reciprocal relations, we shall be brought into greater harmony with their beneficent designs.

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## THE EXTENSION OF STATE BOARDS TO ALL STATES AND TERRITORIES.

BY JOHN W. ANDREWS.

The most reliable estimates that we have indicate that there were in the year 1880, within the limits of the United States, including the Territories, about four hundred and forty-five thousand persons considered as belonging to the defective, dependent, and delinquent classes; that is, persons who were substantially dependent upon the public care. This did not embrace the great army of beggars and outcasts, who, with the increase of population since that date, would probably swell the aggregate at this time to at least seven hundred thousand; and the number is rapidly increasing. Among these suffering men, women, and children are found all the multiplied forms of wretchedness that appeal to our common humanity, and especially to Christian charity. In every State and Territory, in every county and city, in almost every neighborhood, we find the insane, the idiot and imbecile, the orphan and worse than orphan children, the blind, the deaf-mute, the poor who have seen better days, the beggar and outcast, and criminals of every grade; and the State is compelled to decide what can be done, what ought to be done, what shall be done with them. Something must be done. What shall it be?

Now, it is found by experience that, in this work of public charity, humanity and a wise economy always go together. It is more economical to take good care of the insane in an asylum than to trust to the uncertain sympathy of friendship or blood relationship in private families. It is economical to provide permanent homes for children, by first gathering them into county or State homes or asylums, until such permanent arrangements can be made. It is economical to provide institutions for the education of the blind and deaf and dumb, and for the proper treatment and care of the idiot and imbecile. It is economical to have a well-administered jail and prison system, that looks to the promotion of habits of industry and order and final reformation and restoration to society; and to have jails and prisons, as well as infirmaries, asylums, and hospitals, well drained, well lighted and warmed, with an abundance of pure air and

water, rather than make them, as is often done, centres of epidemic and contagious disease.

As, in addition to the claims of humanity and mercy, this question of economy must be considered, it becomes a matter of importance to ascertain how these imperative obligations can be fairly met by the State, with the least cost to the tax-payer. It is evident that on grounds both of humanity and economy there should be thorough system in the organization and administration of penal institutions and public charities, careful supervision and inspection, exposure of abuses, and the bringing of public sentiment to bear upon officers and employes; for public sentiment must at least be our main reliance in this gigantic work.

Now, experience shows that, as a general rule, these duties cannot be safely left to county or city or local authorities, without the supervision of the State. Even with the most careful supervision of Boards of State Charities, cases of shocking neglect and cruelty occur, and are brought to light in every report; and, without such supervision and exposure, there can be no doubt that neglect, cruelty, brutality, and abuses of all sorts, in jails, infirmaries, prisons, and asylums, would soon become intolerable. The wrongs occasionally endured by inmates of such institutions, and which in some cases are so abominable that they cannot be stated in the printed reports, would hardly be deemed possible, were they not proved beyond a doubt to exist, when bad men, under the changes and chances of partisan politics, are raised to positions in which they exercise despotic power; and there is no earthly tribunal to which the sufferer can appeal for protection or redress. As a general rule, to which there are, of course, honorable exceptions, it is found that local public institutions gravitate downward, and tend to become, sooner or later, habitations of cruelty and lust, for which there is no relief but in State supervision and control, backed by an enlightened public sentiment. The public usually knows little of the management of such institutions, and those who know of abuses are for the most part interested in concealing them; and it is easy to see that the result must be, and we can all testify that in many cases it is, tyranny, profligacy, corruption, waste, neglect, and cruelty.

It is to guard against and remedy these evils as far as possible that Boards of State Charities or analogous boards have been established in several of the States, whose duty it is to inspect all such public institutions, expose abuses, and suggest to the State authorities such improvements and methods as they may deem wise and practicable. Such boards have been established by law in twelve States.

In order to accomplish their objects satisfactorily and with the approval of the public, these boards should be strictly non-partisan, and should serve without compensation, their reasonable expenses only being paid: and they should be authorized and required simply to investigate the facts as to the condition and management of all penal and public charitable institutions of the State, and report to the governor or legislature, with their recommendations. If they are clothed with large executive or administrative powers and duties, and especially if intrusted with the distribution of patronage, they will necessarily come into collision with interested parties, and be misunderstood or misrepresented; and their main purpose of bringing facts to bear upon the government and people will be materially weakened thereby. They need only *moral* power, in order best to do their work, leaving the legal remedies for all wrongs to the proper executive, legislative, or judicial authorities. The larger number of States have no such supervision of their public institutions; and in this category are found all the Southern States, so called, and all but six States east and six States west of the Alleghanies, and all the Territories. And their dependent classes referred to, embracing probably at this time nearly or quite three hundred thousand persons, are left to the tender mercies of local officials; and no man can measure the sufferings of this vast multitude of dependent men, women, and children, or the depths of degradation, vice, and crime to which such a state of things inevitably leads, and the disastrous influence it must exert upon the communities that tolerate it.

The object of this paper is to suggest to the Conference that it is its duty to take some action looking to the establishment of Boards of State Charities, or boards of a like character, in all the States and, if possible, Territories of the United States. In order the better to advance this object, it is suggested that a committee be appointed, with instructions to bring this subject before the legislatures of the several States interested, and, if thought proper, of the Territories also, by correspondence, or, if means shall be provided with which to meet the expenses, by suitable agents to go before and address some of them: bringing to their notice the wrongs and abuses that everywhere exist and that have been exposed, and to some extent remedied, in the States in which Boards of State Charities exist; explaining the nature of such boards, their duties, their methods of working and their small cost, their influence upon expenditure in institutions of which they have supervision, and in diminishing the growth of pauperism and mitigating its evils, and, generally, their value in securing as far as possible to the State, with the least cost, the best and



most thorough management of its penal and charitable institutions. The evils referred to are universal, and the remedy, as far as practicable, should be universal also; and experience shows that a Board of State Charities or some State supervision is the best and most economical instrumentality thus far devised for enforcing the faithful administration of these great trusts, involving, as they do, nearly or quite one-half of the current expenditure of every well-governed State.

The tables hereto appended, and which are given by Mr. Wines from the census returns of 1880, show the numbers and distribution of the defective, dependent, and delinquent classes at that date; and the suggestions of Mr. Wines, published in the *International Record* of March, 1886, as to the probable cost of maintaining them, are worthy of careful consideration, as such cost at this time (1886) is probably not less than at the rate of eighty millions of dollars per annum. To inaugurate a system of supervision for the whole country, which, while it is within the reach of the smallest and weakest of the States and Territories, is at the same time adequate to the needs of the largest, as well as to the growing and incalculable demands of the future, is a very appropriate work for this Conference; and, while we cannot personally accomplish much, it will be something to have thus opened the way for those who will enter into our labors and from generation to generation carry on the work of public charity.

NUMBER INCLUDED IN THE ENUMERATION JUNE 1, 1880.

The following table gives the total number of those enumerated as belonging to the defective, dependent, and delinquent classes. The number stated as inmates of benevolent institutions is only approximately correct, the exact number having not yet been ascertained. The same uncertainty necessarily exists as to the total number.

From the total, as here stated, must be deducted the duplications (persons belonging to more than one class, e.g., insane in almshouses, etc.), of whom there are about twenty-one thousand or twenty-two thousand, which would make the total of all classes about four hundred and forty-five thousand.

	Native White.		Foreign White.		Colored.		Total.
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	
Insane, . . . . .	29,134	30,511	12,450	13,708	2,807	3,349	91,859
Idiots, . . . . .	37,108	26,225	2,320	1,663	5,881	3,698	76,895
Blind, . . . . .	17,923	15,128	4,984	3,243	3,841	3,809	48,928
Deaf and Dumb, . . . . .	14,879	12,425	1,894	1,463	1,794	1,423	33,878
Paupers (out-door), . . . . .	7,581	8,085	1,649	2,013	1,660	1,207	21,595
" (in almshouses), . . . . .	19,186	18,417	13,490	9,393	2,888	2,829	66,203
" (in benevolent institutions), . . . . .	21,602	24,426	2,801	4,445	762	780	54,816
Prisoners, . . . . .	28,048	1,708	10,056	2,049	15,500	1,248	58,609
Juveniles in Reformatories, . . . . .	7,453	1,787	789	191	1,016	232	11,468
Total, . . . . .	182,914	138,712	50,433	38,168	35,549	18,575	464,351



## NUMBER BY STATES.

States and Territories.	Insane.	Idiots.	Blind.	Deaf and Dumb.	Out-door Poor.	Paupers in Almshouses.	In Benevolent Institutions.	Prisons.	Juvenile Delinquents.
The United States, . . . . .	91,959	76,895	48,928	33,878	21,595	66,203	54,816	58,609	11,468
Alabama, . . . . .	1,521	2,223	1,399	693	279	514	.....	1,353	.....
Arizona, . . . . .	21	11	27	7	.....	4	.....	67	.....
Arkansas, . . . . .	789	1,374	972	489	85	105	.....	759	.....
California, . . . . .	2,503	507	644	382	77	1,594	.....	2,647	165
Colorado, . . . . .	99	77	104	85	1	46	.....	380	.....
Connecticut, . . . . .	1,723	817	613	565	381	1,418	.....	718	429
Dakota, . . . . .	72	80	63	84	24	.....	.....	60	.....
Delaware, . . . . .	198	269	127	84	3	387	.....	81	.....
District of Columbia, . . . . .	938	107	164	169	.....	184	.....	381	168
Florida, . . . . .	253	369	215	118	62	45	.....	269	.....
Georgia, . . . . .	1,697	2,433	1,634	819	728	550	.....	1,809	.....
Idaho, . . . . .	16	23	6	7	10	7	.....	32	.....
Illinois, . . . . .	5,134	4,170	2,615	2,202	591	3,684	.....	3,320	219
Indiana, . . . . .	3,548	4,725	2,238	1,764	913	3,052	.....	1,613	468
Iowa, . . . . .	2,544	2,314	1,310	1,052	968	1,165	.....	803	257
Kansas, . . . . .	1,000	1,083	748	651	220	355	.....	1,295	.....
Kentucky, . . . . .	2,784	3,513	2,116	1,275	693	1,366	.....	1,398	221
Louisiana, . . . . .	1,002	1,053	845	524	141	.....	.....	1,066	144
Maine, . . . . .	1,542	1,325	797	455	1,706	1,505	.....	405	116
Maryland, . . . . .	1,857	1,319	946	671	147	1,187	.....	1,259	759
Massachusetts, . . . . .	5,127	2,031	1,733	978	954	4,533	.....	3,576	726
Michigan, . . . . .	2,796	2,181	1,289	1,166	554	1,746	.....	1,912	314
Minnesota, . . . . .	1,145	729	448	500	269	227	.....	426	112
Mississippi, . . . . .	1,147	1,579	1,071	606	202	345	.....	1,311	.....
Missouri, . . . . .	3,310	3,372	2,258	1,598	321	1,477	.....	2,041	247
Montana, . . . . .	59	15	12	9	.....	.....	.....	76	.....
Nebraska, . . . . .	459	356	220	287	53	113	.....	374	.....
Nevada, . . . . .	31	18	24	10	1	95	.....	199	.....
New Hampshire, . . . . .	1,056	703	412	221	839	1,198	.....	269	111
New Jersey, . . . . .	2,405	1,056	829	527	518	2,462	.....	1,573	438
New Mexico, . . . . .	153	122	358	70	37	.....	.....	40	.....
New York, . . . . .	14,055	6,084	5,031	3,762	2,817	12,452	.....	8,728	3,342
North Carolina, . . . . .	2,028	3,142	1,873	1,032	668	1,275	.....	1,570	.....
Ohio, . . . . .	7,286	6,460	2,960	2,301	459	6,974	.....	2,538	1,051
Oregon, . . . . .	378	181	87	102	31	51	.....	233	.....
Pennsylvania, . . . . .	8,304	6,497	3,884	3,079	2,502	9,184	.....	4,833	814
Rhode Island, . . . . .	684	214	300	150	27	526	.....	317	186
South Carolina, . . . . .	1,112	1,588	1,100	564	187	119	.....	626	.....
Tennessee, . . . . .	2,404	3,533	1,026	1,108	308	1,136	.....	2,100	12
Texas, . . . . .	1,564	2,276	1,375	771	322	210	.....	3,163	8
Utah, . . . . .	151	148	126	118	33	.....	.....	58	.....
Vermont, . . . . .	1,015	803	486	212	908	655	.....	258	149
Virginia, . . . . .	2,411	2,794	1,710	998	1,015	2,117	.....	1,543	.....
Washington, . . . . .	135	47	47	24	6	11	.....	81	.....
West Virginia, . . . . .	982	1,167	625	520	486	711	.....	389	.....
Wisconsin, . . . . .	2,526	1,785	1,075	1,079	1,010	1,018	.....	689	523
Wyoming, . . . . .	4	2	4	11	9	.....	.....	74	.....

*From the International Record of March, 1886.*

Assuming that the annual cost of maintenance of these special classes does not fall below that of the average population, as stated by Mr. Atkinson,—namely, forty cents a day, or \$146 a year,—the measure of the financial burden which they entail upon the country may be expressed by saying that it is equivalent to an annual expenditure of nearly \$70,000,000. There are probably few persons who realize the magnitude of this burden or the importance of the study of the many questions which it suggests.

### III.

## Poorhouses and Jails.

### THE ADMINISTRATION OF POORHOUSES AND JAILS.

BY DR. A. G. BYERS.

By poorhouses is meant the organized charity of a county, municipality, or district, providing at public expense for the support of the poor who, from age, affliction, or other circumstances of misfortune, are unable to support themselves.

This care for the poor is generally recognized as a function of our civil government; and such recognition carries with it a sacred obligation,—one that under other forms of government is regarded as the peculiar prerogative of the Christian Church, the State paying its tribute and dispensing its charity through religious organizations. We shall not discuss the question as to which system is right or which is the better method of dispensing public charity. The fact of the different systems is referred to as preliminary to an intelligent understanding of the kind of obligation assumed by civil communities in organizing public care and relief for the poor. To him that “considereth the poor,” divine assurances are given; and the benediction may apply to the State or to the Church as well as to the individual. The organization of the poorhouse was evidently conceived—whatever the experience may prove—as an economical method of securing humane care and of providing necessary comfort for the destitute and afflicted.

Organization of such charities varies in accordance with the different constitutional forms of State government and statutory provisions of law corresponding thereto. It is scarcely pertinent to inquire into these different forms of local government, however much they may affect the administration of institutions organized under them. Our inquiry is directed expressly to the administration of poorhouses, and is presumed to consider what is right and proper under any law authorizing such organizations.

The administration of such institutions that does not begin at the front door, guarding with the wisest discrimination and uncompromising firmness admission to its benefits, is seriously neglectful and injurious.

Ordinarily, public attention, if called at all to the administration of our public organized charities, is directed to conditions of neglect or abuse occurring within the institution, whereas these are but incidental, possibly accidental, conditions, that may or may not justly reflect upon the management; while the greater abuse and the culpable wrong lie at the door which opens inward so easily, and (when for the admission of improper persons) outward seldom or never.

The wrong of admitting improper persons (*i.e.*, persons not in actual need, or who, through friends or by their own exertions, might supply their own wants) involves the very first principles that should govern any well-organized and fairly administered charity,—principles of justice and humanity.

The injustice of taxing the industry and thrift of a community for the support of lazy, ignorant, and vicious persons is one to which many communities have become so accustomed as to occasion little thought or care; and when, at times, the burden becomes oppressive from the flagrant abuse of public charity, and so forces public attention to the administration, the necessary reforms are rendered difficult, if not openly defied, by the interrogatory, "What are you going to do about it?" In other words, the wrongs are of a kind easier to endure than to cure; but the injustice is manifest, and is an outrage, in the name of charity, upon the benevolent sympathies of the people.

But the admission of improper persons to the privileges of our poorhouses involves a deeper wrong than can be estimated by the "mill on the dollar," or even the moral wrong of public consent to illegal and unjust administration. The social outrage of encouragement to idle and vicious habits, the support of able-bodied paupers, are parts of this wrong; but even deeper in its social hurt is the fact that the door of the poorhouse, wide ajar, is to the real poor just what the pool of Bethesda was to the impotent man,—he needed it most, while he who needed it less, possibly not at all, stepped in before him. So, year by year, worthy but helpless poor maintain the struggle with poverty, affliction, destitution, and death,—not because there is no poorhouse, but because those more vigorous and less needy occupy the place. As incidental to this condition, a sense of

disgrace attaches to dependence; and self-respect prefers suffering, sometimes death itself, rather than association with the graceless mendicancy of the poorhouse.

There are other causes, however, than a mere willingness upon the part of certain classes of the poor to accept this form of public support that render administrative care exceedingly delicate and correspondingly difficult. Persons and families every way competent to provide for afflicted members of their household seek to place them under public care, as a mere riddance from disagreeable duty or personal responsibility. Sometimes, a merely mercenary spirit prompts such a course; and the expense as well as trouble of caring for those dependent upon the family is avoided by placing the afflicted under public care. Furthermore, instances are not uncommon where property rights are involved; and persons who, of their own right, would possess a competence, are placed under public care, as a means of dispossessing them of their personal rights in property. He who stands at the door of a poorhouse should scrutinize with the utmost intelligence and discrimination all applicants for admission; and, where the ability to provide is found, no social or political influence should prevail to prevent such imposition. But the most careful scrutiny in guarding admissions, even though it should shut out every unworthy applicant and resist successfully every improper influence, will still find difficulties not readily overcome, if due intelligence and a firm adherence to duty shall prevail in the administration of affairs connected with the household.

It would be hard to conceive of duties more complicated, of cares more constant, of responsibilities more exacting, than those pertaining to the immediate management of the ordinary poorhouse. We may presume, even against facts of experience and observation, that every facility for administration is afforded, that every possible comfort of the household is provided for; and yet difficulties remain which demand the utmost wisdom in their adjustment. Take for granted eligible site, buildings capacious, well arranged for classification of inmates, thoroughly equipped in everything pertaining to domestic management, well drained, supplied with an abundance of water, well ventilated, and comfortably as well as safely heated, with every necessary provision against accident from fire or danger from contagious disease, and with every conceivable environment of advantage, and, when all these accessories are present, a household remains consisting of a heterogeneous mass of humanity, differing as widely in their individuality as helpless docile infancy differs from

garrulous, self-asserting old age, with the intervening classes of raving maniacs, demented imbeciles, irresponsible epileptics, gibbering idiots, and always a fair proportion of helpless and unconsciously filthy inmates.

When once the door has opened, the next and most important duty occurs in the registration, upon convenient and systematic records, of the name, age, sex, condition, nativity, ancestry, education, civil relations, personal habits, causes either immediate or remote, of present condition of dependence, and of anything, everything, in the history of the individual, calculated to direct as well as justify the public care. The importance of full and accurate statistics of our pauper classes need not be urged. That it has been greatly neglected stands to-day as one of the chief defects in the administration of our public charities.

Classification of inmates is the next step in the progress of a successful administration. This duty may be aided by the registry referred to, but in nothing pertaining to administration will a sound judgment guided by tact be more required than in making the proper assignment of the individual to the class to which he properly belongs. That classification is needful to the personal treatment as well as to the common comfort of the household will be readily appreciated. But how to classify will never be ascertained satisfactorily from mere registry or rules. It must be left largely to the discretion of the administration. If this be intelligent (we may observe in passing), written or printed rules for the regulation of the household will be useless, a hindrance rather than a help. If, however, rules are regarded as necessary, they should be few in number, simple in form, very explicit of their purpose and import, and should be made known promptly to each individual upon admission. Ordinarily, for poorhouse government, one rule would be sufficient: the one rule employed by Dr. Richard Gundry, formerly of Ohio, now superintendent of the State Asylum for Insane of Maryland, who has had large experience and attained an enviable success, not only as a specialist in his profession, but as an administrator of public institutions. His one rule, and under his ruling sufficient, is the apostolic injunction, "Let everything be done decently and in order."

When admitted, registered, classified, and instructed, the immediate work of administration, so far as individual inmates are concerned, may be regarded as fairly established; and, henceforward, the general condition of the household must be considered. We have assumed that the proper facilities are provided in the con-

struction and equipment of buildings, looking to the convenience of management and the comfort of inmates.

It is scarcely conceivable that the mention of cleanliness would be necessary in connection with such administration. But observations, now covering a period of twenty years, have shown no neglect so uniform, no abuse more strongly intrenched, no wrong so hard to set aright, as the conditions of squalor and filth which have characterized the administration of these institutions. Details unfit for publication are familiar to many, if not most, of the persons present at this Conference; and no fact pertaining to work of the National Conference is entitled to higher commendation than the reformation which its exposures of such conditions have accomplished.

Within the past few days, I have visited quite a number of poorhouses and county asylums for the insane in the State of Wisconsin, in not one of which, either upon the immediate premises, within the living apartments, or upon the persons of the inmates, were to be found any apparent disregard to systematic order or strict regard to cleanliness and decency. In almost every institution, however, the old, narrow, dark, and still offensive apartments were pointed out as relics of the past barbarism; and some of the inmates who had survived we found clothed, if not in their right minds, at least in decent and comfortable garbs.

It would be wise, probably, to place the sanitary and hygienic condition of the poorhouse under the direction and control of the attending physician,—an officer selected for his professional ability rather than his personal popularity or political proclivities,—to be paid an annual salary sufficient to justify the devotion of time and attention necessary to prevent sickness rather than to cure diseases. The practice of letting the medical service, or any other service, of the poorhouse to the lowest bidder is one at variance with every idea of humane or successful administration.

The general order and quiet of the household by day and by night should be carefully promoted. To this end, employment—out-doors, if possible; in-doors, if it can be found—should be given to every inmate not absolutely disabled by physical or mental disability. Such disability will be found rare enough, if only an intelligent purpose is pursued to give every one some kind of employment. When labor is impossible, simpler exercise, or exposure to sun and air, should be secured to the utmost possible degree.

Without further detail of duties relating to the administration of the household, one other duty remains to be mentioned; and this



mention is made with regret, in view of the limit of time which precludes the possible elaboration of its importance. It is the duty of dismissal of inmates. This must be done with the utmost regard to the interest of society as well as of the person discharged. Persons who may have recovered from physical or mental disability, and who might be able to maintain themselves, should be promptly discharged, but not to conditions of temptation or idleness, from which their prompt return is insured; nor should such dismissal be made when in any degree the public health or morals might be affected thereby. Herein will the best possible judgment of the administration be required.

*The Administration of Jails.*—The administration of jails as at present administered in this country suggests a hopeless field of reform while organized under county authority. The jail is, in no proper sense, anything less than a State institution; and it should be under the absolute control of the State. It should be administered under the immediate authority of the judiciary of the particular district in which the county is located. All plans of jail buildings should, before their adoption by local authorities, be approved by the governor of the State. Until brought more directly under State authority and supervision, the jail will not be in position or able to render the service necessary to public protection. It should be regarded as a house of detention in which the citizen suspected of crime is placed, and where his interests—personal, social, and moral—are to be carefully protected until he is either convicted of the crime alleged or fairly acquitted of the charge. During this time, it is due to him, and it is for the best interest of society, that he should be secured from all possible contacts of a demoralizing nature, such as are incident to confinement in an ordinary county jail. If he be a man of any self-respect, the best thing society can do is to help him maintain that respect. If he has no respect for himself, then the best thing society can do upon his arrest, prior to his trial and conviction, is to shut him up by himself for a season, until he may learn the advantages of good society. He will have a higher appreciation of the good after having been associated with himself. Our jails have heretofore been mere herding pens, into which, without any discrimination of age or character or condition, persons were thrown together. They have been so many seminaries of crime, schools of compulsory education, in which the novice, brought into direct contact with the adept, completes what may be lacking in his education to make him a thoroughly equipped and qualified criminal. There is no avoiding



this condition except by a careful reconstruction of our county jails. They should be constructed in such a way as to admit of the entire separation of prisoners during the time of their detention under suspicion. Upon their conviction; if for misdemeanor or some minor offence, they should be sent to the workhouse. If convicted of higher crimes and for a first offence, they should go to a State reformatory indeterminately,—not for one year, or five or ten, but for such period, within a maximum prescribed by law, where reformatory influences can be applied, such as an industrial training, education, and moral influences, so that they may be enabled afterward to resist temptation. If they be of a hopeless condition in age or are habitual criminals, then we think we have secured a wise legislation in Ohio, which says that upon the third conviction for crime the criminal so convicted shall be sent to the penitentiary for life. Whenever the character of an habitual criminal can be made plain to an intelligent jury, and he be thus convicted, then the community needs to be protected; and the only way it can be done is to shut up the criminal till such time as his character is changed. When he gives such assurance to the directors of the prison, he may be pardoned by the governor. But there is no parole, no provision made for release from the requirements of the law, except that of an absolute—so far as it may be ascertained by intelligent and experienced prison officers—reformation of character.

County jails could meantime be maintained at greatly reduced public expense. We pay more than a hundred thousand dollars every year in the State of Ohio for the boarding alone of criminals or persons accused of crime in county jails, comparatively few of whom reach conviction or are punished in any sense. Our jails serve, under our present system, as winter quarters for those who have no sense of disgrace in imprisonment, but who like something good to eat and comfortable bed and clothing. The jail population is greatly increased during our winter months, just as the infirmary population is largely increased, and for much the same reason,—the vagrant is provided with nothing to do and plenty to eat.

#### IV.

### **Catholic Charities.**

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## **THE SYSTEM OF CHARITIES IN THE CATHOLIC CHURCH.**

BY THE RT. REV. JOHN IRELAND, BISHOP OF MINNESOTA.

A high honor has been conferred upon me in the invitation to read before this distinguished body a paper on the System of Charities in the Catholic Church. I may be permitted to express my sincere appreciation of the honor, and to bespeak public recognition of the generous and high-minded spirit in which you approach the study of charity,—lofty, all-embracing as the spirit itself of the truest charity,—refusing your impartial attention to none of the several agencies, whatever their peculiar connections, that are engaged in the holy task of helping suffering humanity.

You make no mistake in numbering the Catholic Church among those agencies. From principle and tradition, the Catholic Church is one vast storehouse of charity. Catholicism is nothing, if it is not charity. The vital doctrines of the Church demand works of charity as the necessary external evidences of inward faith. Her most loyal and most devoted children are known by the consecration of will and energy to works of charity; her most glorious monuments, strewn along the course of time, and marking her passage through nations, are the homes of charity,—her monasteries, her hospitals, her asylums; the decrees of her councils, the letters of her pontiffs, the lessons of her theological and ascetic writers, urge, command, charity.

You will hear from me brief statements of teachings and facts in the Catholic Church, which bear upon the question of charity. This, and nothing more, we all understand, is the duty of the occasion. I make no argument, I institute no comparison, I pronounce no eulogy. I am the relator, not the champion of a cause.

One of the catechisms of the Catholic Church says: "The first-fruit of the Holy Ghost is charity." Then it tells what charity

means ; namely, "to feed the hungry, to give drink to the thirsty, to clothe the naked, to ransom the captive, to harbor the harborless, to visit the sick, to bury the dead." The Church's cardinal principle of justification is the necessity of good works. In her mind, faith without works is dead, utterly incapable of producing fruits of eternal life. "Religion clean and undefiled," she repeats with St. James, "before God and the Father is this, To visit the fatherless and widows in their tribulation, and to keep one's self unspotted from this world." Love for the neighbor the Catholic makes profession of in the same formula of morning and evening prayer which contains the declaration of his love for the Creator: "O my God, I love thee above all things ; . . . and I love my neighbor as myself for the love of thee." The neighbor, his catechisms explain to him, is every child of Adam,—differences of race, language, creed, or personal merit authorizing no distinctions ; and the meaning of this love for his neighbor, he is furthermore reminded, is determined by the Scriptural words : "He that hath the substance of this world, and shall see his brother in need, and shall shut up his bowels from him, how doth the charity of God abide in him ?" Doctrines of this practical nature must need result most favorably, and bring forth in no stinted measure living charity.

The Church, in all her preaching, lays the strongest emphasis upon the supernatural motives that go to build up charity. She issues no dry, formal command to perform works of charity. On her lips, the practice of charity becomes the hopeful sign of predestination, the forerunner of divine clemency and grace, the title to heavenly glory. In the supreme judgment, the just shall be rewarded, because when the Lord was hungry they gave him to eat, when he was thirsty they gave him to drink, when he was in prison they came to him ; and the reprobate shall be driven from the presence of the Judge, because their record has no mention of those deeds of mercy. Charity to the neighbor puts on the highest value a human act may claim. It is the tribute of pure, disinterested personal love from the redeemed to the Redeemer. Christ appears personified in the poor and the sick. Their own merits or demerits sink out of sight : their faces shine with the beauty of Christ ; their wants are the wants of Christ ; their words of gratitude are the words of Christ. "Amen, I say unto you, as long as you did it to one of these my least brethren, you did it to me."

Those supernatural motives are the whole foundation of the system of charities in the Catholic Church. Without them, the system falls at once to the ground.

The personification of Christ in suffering humanity invests all forms of misery with the divine halo ; and the hearts of Christians believing in this personification are drawn to the poor with power magnetic, which they dare not resist, under penalty of refusing tender love to the Babe of Bethlehem and the Saviour of Calvary. Those of you who may have read something of Catholic hagiology are aware that the conviction of this union of Christ with the destitute and the suffering has sunk most deeply into Catholic tradition, and completely colors the Catholic feeling of charity. The Roman soldier, Martin, meeting on the roadside a beggar shivering from cold, takes his mantle from his shoulders, cuts it in twain, and with one-half clothes the beggar. The succeeding night, his biographer narrates, he sees in vision Christ, the Lord, one-half of Martin's own garment wrapped around his sacred limbs. St. Elizabeth, of Hungary, in her forgetful zeal nurses a leper upon the couch of the Landgrave Louis, her husband. He is told of the occurrence, and hastens in rage to the palace. But, as he uplifts the coverlet, his eyes are dazzled, the legend says, with the brightness of Christ's own countenance. St. Jane of Chantal, the daughter of a princely house of France, was wont to speak to the poor with the reverence due to sovereigns ; for she beheld in them, she declared, the King of kings.

The Catholic Church aims to be in her action consistent with her teaching, and she supports this teaching with the forces of a powerful organization. She not only teaches the duty and the value of charity : she officially urges the practice of charity, prepares the way for it, organizes it. The priest for his parish, the bishop for his diocese, the sovereign Pontiff for the whole Church, is, by virtue of his position, the father of the poor, the consoler of the afflicted. What he cannot do personally he is bound, so far as circumstances allow, to have done by others. The Church's entire organization, with its ten thousand ramifications and the manifold engines of power it controls, whatever other purposes it may serve, is committed to charity, the works of which, from her own declarations, are the evidences of her life, and her titles to the respect of the world. Suffering anywhere and everywhere is her golden opportunity. She seeks it out : she rejoices when she has found it, and bends herself at once to the task of relieving it with all the glad hopefulness of the tried warrior stepping into the field of battle, his appearance upon which has ever been the signal that fresh laurels shall decorate his brow. Her ambition is to carve for herself in monuments more enduring than brass or stone, and more salutary far for the children of men, this record,— She has passed by, doing good.

It is not to be presumed, however high the ideal of Catholic charity or however resolute be her will to realize the ideal, that all members of the Church shall be possessed of true charity. Individual free will remains to obey or to resist. Circumstances, too, of time and place, may interpose obstacles; and there will be the many who will bear the name, but will be strangers to the spirit of the Church; there will be the many who will give only partial loyalty to her teachings. But due allowances made for the shortcomings of human nature, in times and places where Catholic action has play, great charitable works must and do exist. Immense sums are contributed in alms-deeds. Asylums, schools, reformatories, are numerous. Each centre of Catholic life — an episcopal see, for instance — is made a centre of charitable institutions. He who has visited with a painstaking eye a Catholic city or a Catholic country, or a city and country in which Catholics are largely represented, be he a friend or foe of the Church, be he a believer, if you wish, that he has found in other matters a hundred subjects for blame and scorn, I am sure he will bear me out in my statement as to the facts of Catholic charity. I will name but one city, Rome. An English traveller, Mr. Eustace (*Classical Tour*), writes: —

No country exhibits more splendid examples of public benevolence or furnishes more affecting instances of private charity. She has the honorable advantage of surpassing all the kingdoms of Europe in the number and magnificence of her charitable foundations. To describe these in detail would require a separate work of considerable extent; and it will be sufficient to inform the reader that there is no disease of body, no distress of mind, no visitation of Providence, to which the human form is liable, from its first appearance till its final deposition in the grave, which is not relieved with tenderness, and provided for, if beyond relief, with a prodigality of charity seldom witnessed elsewhere.

From my own personal observations of the charities of the city of Rome, I can say that Mr. Eustace's words are literally true. It would be impossible to name a want for which provision has not there been made. To protect helpless infancy and provide for decrepit age, to shield the innocent from temptation and bring back the fallen from crime, to spare the blushes of shrinking poverty, to assist the exertions of struggling merit and repair the broken fortunes of honest but unsuccessful industry, to afford consolation and relief to the sick, the prisoner, and the dying, and secure the honors of Christian burial for the dead,— such are the leading objects, branching out into a thousand details, of the comprehensive charity of Rome.

Heroic charity blooms in the parterres of the Church. I mean that charity which cheerfully sacrifices life in the service of the neighbor. The missionary embarking for the island of Molokai to spend himself in the service of the lepers, certain beforehand that the loathsome disease shall one day spread itself over his own body; the Sisters leaving their New York convent, at a moment's notice, to land on the island in the East River where small-pox patients need their care; the priest rushing headlong amid shells and bullets to whisper consolation into the ears of the dying warrior,—scenes of this kind are ordinary common occurrences. No one wonders at them: the marvel would be if they did not exist.

The Church organizes charity. Organization, establishing unity of action amid numbers, is in all matters the means to great and enduring success. The Catholic Church, herself a great and powerful organization, is fully conscious of this fact; and her usual rule of conduct is to seek results through minor organizations, modelled somewhat upon her own self, and governed by her own supreme power.

Through history, in the world to-day, whenever a work of charity is to be performed, an evil, moral or physical, to be encountered, a battalion of devoted persons, men or women as the case may warrant, springs up, if one already suited to meet the emergency is not in existence, and pledges, in the name of charity, strength and life,—thoroughly disciplined, inspired by the highest motives, with an eye single to the purpose in view. I speak of the religious orders in the Church. You have read their names in story and legend; you have espied their members moving through the streets of our cities, with odd dress and manner demure. I will tell the secret springs that control and maintain their organizations.

Their members have spoken before the altar three vows, binding for life, of virginity, poverty, and obedience. The vows fit them for and confine them to their vocation. They are freed from all family ties and obligations. They are freed from all care of worldly things, from all desire of worldly advancement, from all promptings of selfish interest. Their time, their love, is undivided, all going into the service of God and the neighbor. Poor themselves by choice, they love those who are poor from necessity; and the latter love them, knowing well what sacrifices have been made by them. Belonging by birth and association to all classes in society, often to the highest, they are the intermediaries between rich and poor, drawing from one to relieve the other, and bringing all into mutual contact



and love, fusing all hearts by the warmth of their own into one brotherhood. Obedience — which is, however, limited by the terms of the rule of each community, and which never, as the world sometimes supposes, brings the surrender of conscience — gives unity of direction to the energies of all, putting each one in the right place, obtaining movement at the right time, with the order, precision, and certainty of the best drilled armies. Each religious order is an entity of itself, having its own rule and government. All are subject, beyond their own immediate superiors, to the chief Governor of the Church, and under him, with certain well-defined limitations, to the heads of dioceses. The three vows are common to all orders. Special details in the rules, special training of the members, secure adaptability for the special work assigned to each one.

Whence the holy and daring courage of those soldiers of charity? For courage is needed to leave homes and lands, to close the soul to visions of earthly happiness, which come unbidden before the fancy of youth. Courage is needed to bind one's self to the perpetual, disinterested service of beings whom the world deems repulsive, and rejects from its presence. The courage comes from faith. Gold could not purchase it, glory could not inspire it. I know well our religious orders. Their cloisters are familiar to me. I see their works daily. I receive often, in the name of the Church, the vows of strong men, of timid maidens; and, you may believe me, but one motive brings them to the convent, but one motive holds them to their work,—the love of their Saviour. I do not ignore or despise the social, economical, or humanitarian grounds upon which charity may be made to rest; but, when I desire in its name great sacrifices, I place the human heart upon the wings of faith, sending it upward even to the throne of the Immaculate Lamb, and it returns to me burning with his love, strong with his strength; and, then, all things are possible to it. May we never permit the divorce of charity from Christian faith! Man is, by himself, a sorry object; and, if we behold in the poor and the sick and the prisoner but man alone, we will not love him, we will not serve him. Charity is to-day wide-spread because Christian faith permeates our civilization, forms our thoughts, and directs our feelings. There are those who profess to set aside religion. They cannot divest themselves of its power; and they breathe, despite themselves, its invigorating atmosphere. There was a time when there was no charity. There was a time when, whatever Roman soldiers might do toward subjugating nations, whatever the power of Cæsar to build palaces,—the surprise in their



magnificence of all succeeding generations,—however eloquently Roman orators and philosophers spoke, a conference of charities would have been an impossibility. It was a time when the fashionable philosophy declared pity for the unfortunate a weakness, a vice; and the maimed and the aged were by imperial edict consigned alive to watery graves. It was the time of Paganism, before the love of Christ and the faith of Christ had come to save the children of men.

The religious sentiment intensified by the breathings of the Church produces our Catholic religious orders. I do not know the names of all: it would require a long time to repeat them if I did know them. Suffice it to say that there does not exist an ill for the relief of which an order has not been created. Some time ago, when African corsairs led many Christians into slavery, the Order of Trinitarians arose, whose work was the redemption of captives, the monk being obliged by his vow, if no other means of liberation were at hand, to take upon himself the chains of the captive, and emancipate his fellow-men through his own slavery. On the summit of the Alps, where the air is so rarefied that a few years exhaust a life, the monk of St. Bernard has pitched his tent, to save the unfortunate wayfarer from the death-dealing avalanche. The Brother of St. John of God, the Brother of St. Alexius, tend in the hospital the sick of their own sex. The Sister of Charity, the Sister of St. Joseph, take under their charge hospitals and orphanages. The Sister of the Good Shepherd consecrates her own pure heart in love for the unfortunate outcast of society. The Little Sister of the Poor gathers around her the aged poor, and feeds them tenderly with the fruits of her begging, her rule not permitting her to eat until the children, as the old people are lovingly called, have had their fill; and then, if nothing remains, she fasts until Providence comes to the rescue. The Sister of Bon Secours nurses the sick poor in their own cottages. The Little Sister of the Working People looks after children and women employed in factories, and encourages among them habits of piety and of thrift. But enough of mere names.

We claim peculiar advantages from this system of Catholic charities. It secures in the service of charity what is most valuable, and most difficult to be obtained,—the sweetness and tenderness of love. It is not bread or medicine that is most prized by the indigent and the sick: it is the smile, the soft caress, the kind, hopeful word. The heart rather than the mouth must be fed: the soul

rather than the body must be warmed. All this is done without effort, and done with exquisite delicacy, when the heart of the laborer is in the work. The Catholic Brother and Sister are inspired by love. They could not endure the religious life unless the heart were all on fire with love: love streams from the heart, and ignites all hearts coming within the circle of its influence. We have read in military annals how the dying soldier fancied a mother or a sister to be standing over him, as the Daughter of St. Vincent bade him confide in the Saviour of Calvary, and poured refreshing drops upon his parched lips. The Little Sister of the Poor lifts her finger, and a hundred querulous and quarrelsome old men, a hundred old women, will be silent and respectful, while they would be untamed before a platoon of policemen. The mere rustling of the gown of a Good Shepherd nun distils the fragrance of heavenly purity amid a crowd of poor creatures from whose souls the chilling blasts of horrid sin had seemed to drive all vestige of the Divine Image. And why should not those things be? Love is ever the conqueror. I read a few days ago in one of our papers that, at the late annual exhibition of pictures in the Palais de l'Industrie at Paris, one by M. Cabanel attracted universal attention; and crowds of spectators remained still, as fixed to the ground, before it. It was the portrait of the Foundress of the Little Sisters of the Poor. The costume was austere, unbeautiful; but the face,—“it was,” said the critic, “an inspired work of art, one might say of faith; for seldom has the beauty of divine love and humility and self-sacrifice been more vividly and delicately expressed than in this portrait of the humble woman who from heroic charity conceived the idea of helping the poorest of the poor by begging for them, day by day, the crumbs from the rich man’s table.” The picture but faintly represents the living beauty of love and faith which daily walks and works amid our hospitals, asylums, and refuges.

There is economy, too, in our system. The Sister receives for herself food and clothing. Her vow refuses her all other temporal advantage. She feels for the poor; and, for their sake, she has learned to misuse nothing, to waste nothing. The rich give to her willingly. They recognize that she has no profit of her own in the gifts, and that the needy will be the sole beneficiaries. Special training and long experience bring skill. Nor is the lesson of experience confined to the lifetime of the individual. The whole order is as one being receiving knowledge from many countries, and storing up for the benefit of each member the treasures of experience accumulated

through generations. And, finally, permanency is given to works. However active and intelligent the zeal may be of an individual, he dies; and his influence departs. An organization lasts. The individual drops out from the ranks. His place is quickly filled: there is no interruption in the task of mercy.

I should add that, besides the vow-bound orders of charity in the Catholic Church,—these are her regular army,—there are her volunteer associations of charity, composed of men or women, the married or the unmarried, who, without leaving the ordinary walks of life, band themselves into associations of various natures, and give to them what time their occupations may allow. Chief among those is the admirable Society of St. Vincent of Paul, branches of which exist wherever the Church herself is found, and whose mission it is to visit and relieve the poor in their homes. The Society of St. Vincent has received high ecclesiastical approval. I make mention of it, in order to call attention to two very prominent features in its rules, which are main characteristics of all Catholic charities, although, perhaps, not so explicitly expressed in some. The one is that the end of all charity is to elevate the recipient, and ultimately save him, if at all possible, from his helplessness. The accusation has been made that Catholic charity is reckless in its ardor, and perpetuates poverty by encouraging idleness and improvidence. No accusation could be more false, more groundless. The other feature is that charity demands from us personal service. We do not do our duty by paying a tax to the State or sending to a committee an annual subscription, leaving to the State or the committee to stand proxy for us, and omitting to come ourselves into contact with the poor. Charity is a love for the victim of sorrow, and love demands personal attention. It is the mission of Christian charity to benefit both the giver and the receiver; and, indeed, the one who is the more benefited is the giver, whose nature is softened, refined by the exercise of the virtue, in whose heart pride and egotism are cut short by the sight of suffering and misery among his fellow-men. It is this personal charity, let it be said, that will prevent the estrangement of classes in society, and will save us from the total social disruption with which we are threatened in these times.

The Catholic Church has not as yet had the time nor the opportunity to build up as fully as she would have desired her charities in America. Still, she has not been idle. There is no city without her institutions, no village without an official representative of her charity. She will do more in the future, for freedom of expansion

is allowed her by our generous laws and the noble spirit of our people. She will watch carefully over her own works. At the same time, she will bless all other agencies of true charity. The field is broad: there is room for many workers. The consideration of the labors of others will fire our emulation to do as well as they; and the spirit of love for the neighbor, which inspires us all, will lead us to love one another most sincerely, and to rejoice in all the good that is done, as our heavenly Father above rejoices in it.

## V.

### The Kindergarten.

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#### FREE KINDERGARTENS.

BY CONSTANCE MACKENZIE.

The past thirteen years have been memorable for the free kindergarten movement in the United States. Previous to that time, the work was largely private, experimental, and within the limits of the well-to-do classes. "Kindergarten" was the shibboleth of the few. It was new, strange, mysterious, and consequently made slow progress, often slipping back, often standing still. It needed free work, on a broader basis, to insure it careful, unbiased investigation and adoption by the many. The year 1873, which found the new educational movement scarcely astir, was to witness the initial steps of a large work in the right direction. In the fall of that year, Miss Susan E. Blow, of St. Louis, Mo., made the generous offer of her services to the Board of Public Schools of that city, consenting to supervise and direct an experimental kindergarten, if the board would provide the room and the salary of one kindergartner. This offer was accepted; and a primary school teacher was trained, and installed as an assistant. The work of a year proving successful, the board opened in 1874 two additional kindergartens, also under Miss Blow's supervision and control. From that time, they were established as fast as teachers could be trained to take charge of them. At the end of five years there were two in nearly every first-grade public school in the city; and, to-day, St. Louis gives training to over four thousand little children, preparatory to sending them into the public schools.

From 1873 until 1877, St. Louis stood as the sole representative of free kindergarten work in the country. In 1877, Mrs. Quincy A. Shaw opened two kindergartens in the vicinity of Boston, Mass., at her own expense. She gave largely, also, toward the support of two in Cambridge, and in 1878 opened fourteen others, in 1879 twelve more. Since then, changes have been made; and there are at pres-

ent twenty in and near Boston, with an enrolment of about thirteen hundred of the poorest children. These are, as they have been from the first, supported solely by the liberal charity of Mrs. Shaw.

In the summer of 1878, Prof. Felix Adler, of New York, founder of the Society for Ethical Culture, spoke forcibly and effectively at a meeting of influential citizens of San Francisco, urging the necessity of putting into operation in that city a system of free kindergartens. The outcome of this was the organization of the still existing Public Kindergarten Society, which, starting with one kindergarten and fifty children, has at present three kindergartens, caring for two hundred of the poorest of the San Francisco waifs.

The next year, which set its seal of "well done!" upon the Public Kindergarten Society, proved also the inability of this one association to meet the needs of the large city. In the fall of 1879, Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper and her Bible class took into their helpful hands the task of founding other of these child-saving institutions, and so started into existence the second free kindergarten society of San Francisco, under the name of the Jackson Street Kindergarten Association, since changed to the Golden Gate Kindergarten Association. This society gathers in more than eight hundred children, taken mainly from the gutters and the wretched "homes" of the slums of San Francisco.

In the same year with the later California society, Mrs. E. M. Blatchford, of Chicago, Ill., opened the first free kindergarten of that city. It was so successful that others were called for; and, in the fall of 1881, the Chicago Froebel Association was formed, and a teacher engaged to train a normal class of kindergartners. In 1882, the society supervised four kindergartens, which were finally so overcrowded that the pressure for more ample accommodations became irresistible; and, in 1886, the number of kindergartens was increased to ten, with an enrolment of five hundred children.

Late in the winter of 1881, several private citizens of Chicago established the society known as the Chicago Free Kindergarten Association, which had for its objects: *first*, the founding and maintenance of a free normal training class; *secondly*, the establishing in that city of a system of free kindergartens, to be supported by private contribution. To-day, this society has under its charge fourteen kindergartens, giving training to eighteen hundred children, from the poorest homes in the city.

In the autumn of 1879, Miss Anna Hallowell, of Philadelphia, who had from the first taken a warm interest in the work in Boston, de-

cided to try the same experiment in her city, beginning with one kindergarten, to be supported by private contributions from friends. The success of one encouraged the establishment of others; and, by the co-operation with her of the Society for Organizing Charity and other benevolent associations, five were opened in the following eight months. In 1881, the work assumed such proportions that a society was formed and incorporated, under the name of the Sub-primary School Society. It was hoped that ultimately kindergartens would be adopted by the Board of Public Education, as a part of the public school system.

Growing work called for growing funds to meet expenses. City councils were petitioned, and the amount of five thousand dollars was granted for two successive years. In the next year and the next, renewed applications obtained each time a grant of seven thousand five hundred dollars. The society to-day supports twenty-nine free kindergartens, with an enrolment of one thousand children, mostly from the poorest and most ignorant classes, frequently from the most degraded and vicious. Half of the expenses and accommodations are met by appropriations from the city treasury, and half from associate committees connected with various charitable institutions.

From the first, the attitude of the Philadelphia Board of Public Education has been friendly and generous. The use of vacant rooms in public school buildings has been cheerfully accorded, and helpful consideration and encouragement always extended by the superintendent, Prof. James MacAlister.

In his annual report for 1885, Mr. Edward T. Steele, president of the board, earnestly recommended kindergartens as part of the public school system. The consideration of the subject is at present before the board.

The Cincinnati Free Kindergarten Association, established in 1879, supports six kindergartens, whose three hundred children are of the poorest class in the city, embracing a large foreign element.

In 1880, we find Milwaukee, Wis., considering the advisability of following the wise lead of St. Louis. A kindergarten was opened in connection with the Central School, under the directorship and management of Miss Sarah A. Stewart, former principal of the normal school of Milwaukee. In 1882, two additional were opened; and the present year finds twelve public kindergartens training nearly fourteen hundred children.

The Milwaukee Mission Kindergarten Association, still in its infancy, was established in 1885, and has already under its charge, in its three kindergartens, one hundred and fifty children.



New York can probably boast of a greater number of free kindergartens within her limits, outside of kindergarten associations, than any other city in the Union. Oakland and San José, Cal.; Denver, Col.; Hartford and New Haven, Conn.; Portland, Me.; Pittsfield and Florence, Mass.; Louisville, Ky.; Baltimore, Md.; Detroit, Mich.; Minneapolis, Minn.; Buffalo and Oswego, N.Y.; Providence, R.I.,—are, in addition to the cities cited above, giving free training to more than two thousand children in and out of institutions.

As a basis for this report, a carefully prepared set of questions, asking for information on free kindergarten work, was distributed to all who were believed to have had practical experience. These were responded to with a promptness as gratifying as it was helpful.

An examination of the replies shows an average age for each kindergarten child of four and a half years. The classes reached range from those in "moderate circumstances" to "our future criminals," with a strong majority in favor of the latter. Between these two extremes are "children of the working classes," "the poor," "the very poorest," making the average class those of "low and degraded parentage." From these, we exclude the public school kindergartens of St. Louis and Milwaukee.

To the question, "What is the apparent influence of the kindergarten upon the children?" comes a deluge of answers, their burden being, without exception, that the effects have been only beneficial. St. Louis sums it up as follows: "The influence of the kindergarten upon the children is strongest in developing *power*. They grow in self-directing activity, intellectually and morally, strikingly manifested wherever the kindergarten influence is purest and strongest; and the entire training results in habits of mind and body which noticeably conform to a well-developed ideal in the mind of Froebel."

To the question, "Do you notice any beneficial effects of the kindergarten upon the children's homes?" the testimony is enthusiastically in the affirmative from all who speak from close and personal observation. As upon the children, so through them, upon the homes, the improvement in cleanliness, tidiness, order, is marked; speech and manners grow gentle, the house becomes an attractive home. "Many mothers have assured the teachers that, through the effect of the kindergarten upon their children, their own thoughts and actions have been influenced. They have learned to realize the duty of being 'good mothers.' Fathers have noticed their boys' interest in the shop-work, and have become more interested in intelligent observation of their own work. The family life has grown more happy."

Many quote the testimony of public school teachers to the effect that the influence of the kindergarten is seen often in the older brothers and sisters of the little children.

The question, "In what direction is the influence of the kindergarten most potent?" finds the answers echoing one another in such expressions as, "In developing will power," "In training children to think," "In developing the power of self-control," "In establishing systematic habits," "In teaching obedience," all of which may be condensed into one phrase,—in character-building.

We give the next two questions together, because in so many instances one covers the ground of both. "In your judgment, does the kindergarten prevent crime, and in what way? Does it prevent pauperism, and in what way?"

Three papers answer in effect that, with so many outside counter-acting influences to be taken into account, a positive reply in the affirmative cannot be given. Two say that crime and pauperism *are* prevented, modifying this by a consideration of home and after training. "The kindergarten itself does not, of course, bear directly upon crime," writes one of our correspondents; "but, if the entire after education of the child were carried out according to the principles of the kindergarten, there can be no doubt that its effects would be strongly felt in every direction. At present, however, whenever the training the child has received in the kindergarten is not continued after he leaves there, and is even, as is often the case, directly opposed to it, the influence of the short and temporary experience of the kindergarten cannot but be weakened by later contradictory training. The prevention of crime would lie in developing the active virtues, the germs of which are awakened and presented as ideals in the kindergarten. Kindergarten training continued would aid in reducing pauperism by developing self-helpful activity. The beginnings of manual training are part of the kindergarten. The child's hands and eyes are ever busy to produce and observe.

"Nearly every trade and art has its place in Froebel's system, which gives the child the alphabet of them all by calling upon him to master the materials and principles common to all. Hence, the manual training side, developed and continued, would give all people the desire for and the power of self-supporting activity, and in this way reduce pauperism."

Others answer that the kindergarten does prevent crime and pauperism: "by teaching the child to respect the rights of others"; "by developing the power of invention, with ability to execute";

"by preventing idleness, and encouraging industry"; "by training the hand to work, and the mind to love and respect that work"; "by training the child to be self-dependent"; "by teaching energy, despatch in work, and diligence."

From 1873 to 1886, the number of kindergarten children in this country has been steadily increasing from a handful of one thousand to twenty thousand. The kindergarten system is now old enough and strong enough to speak for itself. The prejudice of the few, who *will* not see the hurtful zeal of unwise advocates, who claim for it more than it claims for itself, though it did much to hinder its first uncertain steps, now holds it back no longer.

With the practical experience of public kindergarten work contributed by two cities; with a State law passed within the last few months in Connecticut, to the effect that three years shall be the legal minimum age of admission to the public schools of that State; with progressive men and women awakening to a realization of the value of good *early* training for children,—the future is full of hope that the kindergarten will become the basis of public education, as well as the introductory step in all work for the reduction and prevention of crime and pauperism.

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## THE BEARING OF THE KINDERGARTEN ON THE PREVENTION OF CRIME.

BY REV. R. HEBER NEWTON, D.D.

The relation of the kindergarten to the problem of the prevention of crime can be stated in a word. Education is the true preventive of crime, and the foundation of a normal education lies in the kindergarten. It seems a waste of words to argue either of these points before the Conference of Charities and Correction. Here, at least, it will be conceded that education is the real preventive of crime; and here it will as certainly be conceded that the kindergarten lays the true foundation for an integral education, patterned after nature's own methods. These two premises being admitted, the conclusion follows inevitably that the kindergarten has a very direct relation to the problem of preventing crime.

All that I shall try to do is briefly to indicate a few of the special aspects of the kindergarten training in which this relation is strikingly seen.

Visitors in a kindergarten watch its occupations, and leave it

with the somewhat contemptuous criticism,—“Oh! it's all very nice and pleasant,—a very pretty play.”

Were this all, the kindergarten might enter a strong plea on its own behalf. In the foul tenements and the dirty streets and alleys of our great cities, the tainted air is sapping the vitality of the children, poisoning their blood, sowing their bodies with the seeds of disease, and educating the helpless hosts who crowd every market place of labor, unfit physically to contend in the struggle for existence.

In the sad and sombre atmosphere of these homes, whose joylessness they feel unconsciously,—as the cellar plant misses the light, and shrivels and pales,—the inner spring of energy and its strength of character (the *virtus*, or virtue, of the human being) relax; and their souls become flabby and feeble. Lacking the sunny warmth of happiness in childhood, they lack through life the stored-up latencies of spiritual heat which feed the noblest forces of the being.

A veritable mis-education in play, this of our streets, as all who are familiar with the poor quarters of our cities too sadly know, copying the vile words and brutal manners which are the fashion of these sections, feeding the prurient fancies which, Mr. Ruskin says, are the mental putrescence gendered of physical filth in the overcrowding together of human beings.

If only the little ones in their most susceptible years can be gathered in from harmful surroundings, be shielded from scorching heats and chilling winds, and warded from the wild beasts that lurk around the valleys where the tender lambs lie, though in pastures dry and by turbid waters; if only, fenced in thus from the hearing of harsh, foul words, and from the seeing of brutalizing and polluting actions, they can be left for the best hours of each day to disport themselves in innocent and uncontaminating happiness amid these “pretty plays,”—it will be an inestimable gain for humanity. For thus, in its native surroundings, the better nature of each child would have a chance to grow, and the angel be beforehand with the beast, when, not for an hour on Sunday, but *always*, their angels do behold the face of the Father in heaven.

The kindergarten plays form a beautiful system of calisthenics, adapted for tender years, and filled out with the buoyancy of pure sportiveness. The marching, the light gymnastic exercises, the imitative games, with the vocal music accompanying them, occupy a considerable portion of the daily session in an admirable physical culture.

Health is the basis of character as of fortune. There is a physiology of morality. Some of the grossest vices are largely fed from an impure, diseased, and enfeebled physique. Drunkenness, especially among the poor, is to a large extent the craving for stimulation that grows out of their ill-fed, ill-housed, ill-clothed, overworked, unsunned, sewer-poisoned condition. Lust is intensified and inflamed by the tainted blood and the overtaxed nervous system. Purity of mind grows naturally out of purity of body. Physiologists understand these facts far better than ethicists. Then, too, lesser vices are, in their measure, equally grounded in abnormal physical conditions. Faults of temper, irritability, sullenness, and anger, are intimately connected with low health, the under-vitalized state which characterizes the city poor.

The kindergarten plays form a most wise system of culturing the powers and dispositions which lay the foundation for successful industrial skill; and this also bears directly upon the turning out of good men and women, in which lies the prevention of crime.

Pricking forms of geometrical figures and of familiar objects on paper, weaving wooden strips into varied designs, folding paper into pretty toys and ornaments, plaiting variegated strips of paper into ingenious and attractive shapes, modelling in clay,—these, with other kindred exercises,—“pretty play,” as it all seems,—constitute a most real education by and for work. By means of these occupations, the eye is trained to quickness of perception and accuracy of observation, the hand to deftness of touch and skill of workmanship such as a child may win, the sense of the beautiful is roused and cultivated, the fancy is fed and the imagination inspired, the judgment is exercised and strengthened, originality is stimulated by often leaving the children to fashion their own designs; while habits of industry are inwrought upon the most plastic period of life, and the child is accustomed to find his interest and delight in work, and to feel its dignity and nobleness. How directly all this bears upon the labor problem, the vexed question of philanthropy, is patent to all thoughtful persons.

But the labor problem is not only the dark puzzle of want: it is, in large measure also, the darker puzzle of wickedness. Want leads to very much wickedness with which our courts deal. The prevention of suffering will be found to be the prevention of a great deal of sinning. How much of the vice of our great cities grows directly out of poverty, and the lot which poverty finds for itself! Drunkenness among the poor is fed, not only from the physical conditions above

referred to, but from the craving for social cheer that is left unsupplied in the round of long, hard work by day and dull, depressing surroundings by evening.

To eke out the insufficient wages of unskilled work, there is one resource for working-girls. To realize the day-dream of the fine lady, there is the whispered temptation of the spirit of evil. Society must not only teach the children to pray, "Lead us not into temptation": it must train them so as to lead them out of temptation.

The kindergarten is a system of child occupation, a curriculum of play, looking straight on to the supreme end of all culture,—character; a child-garden whose fruitage is in the spirit-flowering induced therein, beautiful with the warm, rich colors of morality, fragrant with the aromatic incense of religion. It is essentially a soul-school, reproducing, on a smaller scale, God's plans of education as drawn large in human society.

The little ones, just out of their mother's arms, are gathered into a miniature society, with the proper occupations for such tender years, but with the same drawing out of affection, the same awakening of kindly feeling, the same exercise of conscience in ethical discriminations, the same development in will, the same formation of habits, the same calling away from self into others, into the larger life of the community, which, in so far as civilization presents a true society, constitutes the education of morality in "Man writ large."

An order is established round about the little ones, environing them with its ubiquitous presence, constraining their daily habits, impressing itself upon their natures, and moulding them while plastic into orderliness. Certain laws are at once recognized. They are expected to be punctual to the hour of opening, regular in coming day by day, to come with washed hands and faces and brushed hair, and to be obedient generally to the kindergarten. A sense of law thus arises within their minds. It steals upon them through the apparent desultoriness of the occupations, and envelops their imaginations in that mystery of order wherein, either in nature or in man, is the world-wide, world-old beginning of religion, while moulding their emotions and impulses into the habitudes of law wherein is the universal beginning of morality.

In this miniature society there is a school of manners. The little ones have before them daily, in the persons of the kindergartner and her assistants, a higher order of cultivation, all whose ways take on something of the refinement that naturally clothes the lady; and, seen through the atmosphere of affection and admiration which



surrounds her, these habits are idealized before the little ones into models of manners, which instinctively waken their imitativeness and unconsciously refine them and render them gentle,—a very different thing from *genteel*.

Among themselves, in the daily relations of the kindergarten, in its plays and games, the children are taught and trained to speak gently, to act politely, to show courtesy, to allow no rudeness or roughness in speech or action. The very singing is ordered with especial reference to this refining influence; and its soft, sweet tones contrast with the noisy and boisterous singing of the same class of children in the Sunday-school, not only æsthetically, but ethically.

The importance given to music in the kindergarten, where everything that can be so taught is set to notes and sung into the children, is the carrying out of the hints given by the greatest thinkers, from Plato to Goethe, as to the formative power of music. One who knows nothing of these hints of the wise, and who had never reflected upon the subject, when watching a well-ordered kindergarten would feel instinctively the subtle influence of sweet music in softening the natures of the little ones, in filling them with buoyant gladness, in leading them into the sense of law, in harmonizing their whole natures. In manifold ways, each day also brings opportunities of impressing upon the little ones the mutually limiting rights of the members of a community, the reciprocal duties each one owes to every other one with whom he has relations, and of thus enforcing the lesson, "No man liveth unto himself." A sense of corporate life grows up within this miniature community, which floats each life out upon the currents of a larger and nobler life. Each action shows its consequences upon others, and thus rebukes selfishness. Each little being is bound up with other beings, with the whole society. Each child's conduct affects the rest, and changes the atmosphere of the whole company. Injustice is thus made to stalk forth in its own ugliness, falsehood to look its native dishonor, meanness to stand ashamed of itself in the condemning looks of the little community. Justice rises into nobleness, truth into sacredness, generosity into beauty, kindness into charming grace, as their forms are mirrored in the radiant eyes of the approving company. That very deep word of the apostle, "Let him that stole steal no more, for we are members one of another," grows in such a child community a living truth, a principle of loftiest ethics; and, in the sense of solidarity, the feeling of organic oneness, the highest joy of goodness and the deepest pain of badness, becomes the perception



of the influence, mysterious and omnipotent, which each atom exerts on the whole body, for weal or for woe, in the present and in the future.

An atmosphere of love is thus breathed through the little society of the kindergarten, under which all the sweetness and graciousness of the true human nature, the nature of the Christ in us, open and ripen in beauty and fragrance. All morality sums itself up in one word,—love. "Owe no man anything, but to love one another: for he that loveth another hath fulfilled the law. For this, Thou shalt not commit adultery, Thou shalt not kill, Thou shalt not steal, Thou shalt not bear false witness, Thou shalt not covet; and, if there be any other commandment, it is briefly comprehended in this saying, namely,—Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself. Love worketh no ill to his neighbor: therefore, love is the fulfilling of the law."

To teach children really to love one another, to cherish kindly, generous, unselfish dispositions toward each other, and to act upon those dispositions, is to write the whole code of conduct in the heart. And, plainly, this is not a matter for mere precept. It is not to be effected by the most eloquent exhortations of Sunday-school teachers or of pastors. It is a spirit to be breathed within the very souls of the little ones in their tenderest years, from an atmosphere charged with lovingness. The kindergarten is only a vicarious mothering for those whose homes lack this divine nurturing, a brooding over the void of unformed manhood and womanhood by a loving woman, bringing order out of chaos, and smiling to see it "very good."

I have thus touched lightly upon certain aspects of the kindergarten which relate this beautiful child-garden directly to the great problem of the prevention of crime. The gist of the whole matter lies in the one word with which I opened. Education is the real preventive of crime, and education lays its true foundation in the kindergarten. The State would find it a cheap investment to found free kindergartens as a pre-primary department of our public school system. What it would spend there it would save in our prisons.

## VI.

### Reformatories.

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#### MORAL ELEVATION IN REFORMATORIES: WHAT IS REQUIRED TO PRODUCE IT.

BY J. C. HITE.

It is a conceded fact that nearly all boys, at the time they are first placed in correctional institutions, are either guilty of some penal offence or are regarded as being very incorrigible. Our experience teaches us that whatever produces incorrigibility many times leads to and produces penalty. The cause of waywardness and criminality of our youth is, generally, either from neglect of parents in properly training their children or for the want of correct knowledge of how to do it. Children who have become wayward, almost in every instance, are those whose characters have become weakened by the strong influences of evil surroundings. It is a mistaken idea that all boys who are placed in reformatories are worse by inheritance than the average boy. Many have been born of Christian parents, and have received daily Christian instruction, but by over-indulgence or excessive kindness have been allowed to roam through their cities with scarcely any restraint, until, little by little, they have learned to enjoy idleness and the society of those who have preceded them in vice. Gradually, they partake of the nature of the idler and the criminal, and finally commit the same offence and are placed in the same felon's cell as those with whom they have associated. This class of wayward boys have become criminals, as it were, by inoculation, and can only be cured of their evil ways by enforcing over them a thoroughly humane and firm discipline. To a large extent, we are growths from circumstances. Hence, the treatment of the disease, in order to perfect a cure, must be different from that which produced it. If evil society will make good boys bad, Christian teaching and Christian surroundings ought to, and will, make many bad boys good. In order to change the course of a

wayward boy, his mind must be directed to and interested in something elevating and sufficiently enticing to change his thoughts from that which has degraded him to that which will engage and occupy his mind long enough to interest him in something which is ennobling and which will develop in him a substantial growth of good moral character. Where to place this class of individuals, in order to bring about such a result, is a debatable question. The general public usually recommends a reformatory or benevolent institution, where discipline can be enforced and where proper restraint can be had to stop the rapid growth of waywardness already so deeply rooted in the delinquent's heart. But, oftentimes, what is *called* a reformatory only proves to be a place of forced restraint. A reformatory is one thing, and a place of compulsory detention is another. A reformatory is a place of discipline, which means to educate, to instruct, to correct, and in some cases to chastise. To detain, in a legal sense, generally means to keep in custody by force. Moral elevation can only be produced through the different channels of education, which is the surest and most successful way to arouse the mind and change its course from that which is debasing to that which is elevating and ennobling. Education does not only mean knowledge acquired from books, but also from various industries. Work, cheerfully and well performed, is an absolute necessity for producing reformation. It is just as necessary, then, to create a taste for labor as to acquire knowledge from books or travel, and perhaps more so. We would not wish to be understood, however, by this remark that we favor limited book education. We believe in many reformatories the educational interests have been curtailed to such an extent, for the purpose of making money out of the labor of the inmates, that the high objects for which reformatories are established are largely lost sight of. We speak from personal experience when we say that, since the introduction of the studies of history, algebra, and physics, as well as literary societies, Young Men's Christian Associations, a printing-office, and a polytechnic department at the Boys' Industrial School of Ohio, a better and more rapid advancement has been made than before. The moral standard is higher, better books are read, more skilful labor performed, and more cheerfully done. Book education must be acquired *in* a reformatory, as well as outside of it, in order to produce good results. A reformatory, then, should be established on such a principle and equipped in such a way as to afford *all* the advantages possible to suit the tastes of the inmates to be employed at industrial employment. It would be unwise to

attempt to make a silversmith out of a blacksmith, and it would be equally unwise to try to make a blacksmith out of a lawyer or a physician. These occupations and professions differ widely from each other, and yet all are useful and honorable. Napoleon Bonaparte was a brave and daring general, but he would have made a very poor minister of the gospel. The principle that labor is honorable should be faithfully taught and upheld, but every wayward boy in a reformatory ought to be provided with such kinds of labor as will arouse his mind most and get him to thinking soonest. The polytechnic system for teaching mechanics is performing wonders in the way of interesting boys and girls in mechanical labor, and we believe that every reformatory should have such a department. Labor produces muscle, and muscle produces brain. The necessity for creating a taste for labor is so great, and is such an important factor for producing reformation, that we cannot afford to neglect providing the kind of industries that are best calculated to create a desire for some honorable industry. It is said that idleness has produced more crime than all other things combined. Many boys become idlers because there is nothing provided for them to do for which they have a natural ability. Some boys grow idle after they leave a reformatory, because they have been compelled to perform that kind of labor which was distasteful to them while in the institution.

Boys who have been reared in cities are more inclined to mechanics than to farming. The Board of Corrections and Charities of the State of Michigan, in the year 1885, in referring to farm labor, say that farming is a very pleasant and healthful occupation, and is much enjoyed by many of the boys. But they also say that "the brightest lads received from the large towns are often inclined to tire of the quiet farm life." The same board, in speaking of this class, say that "as soon as they have acquired a fair degree of dexterity in the use of tools, and are thus put in the way of learning a trade, they are reported as a class from which there have been very few instances of lapse into criminal associations and practices." Here is positive evidence that a class of delinquents, if properly educated, and to the kind of work they enjoy, may be made useful and honored citizens.

The great danger in reformatories is that, by the ordinary system of teaching labor, we make too many of our boys mere "machines," by compelling them to work at something they dislike instead of skilfully placing them at something for which they have the most

natural taste and ability. By strong pressure, we can force water to flow up hill ; but, as soon as the pressure is taken off, the water finds its level again. It is just so with the boys in the labor department. If you try to make a farmer out of a natural born mechanic, and compel him to follow it while he is in a reformatory, the very moment he leaves the institution he will either go to work at something he does like or quit working entirely and go to loafing. The latter is the most probable ; and why is it so ? Because an effort has been made to make him love that which he hated. Reform means to change, to restore to a former good state. The most natural way is the best way to effect such an important change.

A minister of the gospel never uses forcible means to make Christians of his congregation. He pursues just the opposite course. He appeals to their higher feelings, and in that way he gets them to thinking. "Convince a man against his will, and he is of the same opinion still." Compel a boy to do that which he hates, and he will continue to hate. If you enclose him within a huge stone wall, no matter how well he may be clothed or fed, he will not only defy its strength, but get over it, if in his power ; for, in a reformatory sense, the strongest stone wall is no wall.

The broad principles of liberty are naturally too great in him to suffer himself to be held by force without an effort at escaping from that which he believes to be *prison* detention. His defiant feelings need to be appeased rather than be aroused. No matter how wayward he may be, he knows his rights, and believes he should have proper consideration. He must be brought in contact with more sweetening influences than high walls and tall fences before he will surrender his wayward notions. He needs to be led ; he needs to be convinced ; he needs to be trusted ; he needs to be recognized as only having committed an *error* instead of being taught by his surroundings that he is a *criminal*, and is held as such. Place him in a home, with good home influences. Feed and clothe him well. Teach him system and order. Give him responsibility. Educate his hand and his heart, and last, though not least, teach him by a proper spirit of emulation that every rational and able-bodied individual should labor, and labor cheerfully and well. Such influences as these will tend to arouse his finer feelings and aid in subduing his wicked desires for committing evil.

Why so many wayward boys in reformatories fail to be bettered is because sufficient care is not taken in selecting competent persons to take charge of them. If we wish to teach discipline, we must select

those who understand it. If we wish to teach labor, we must employ those who are willing to perform it. If we wish to give instruction in mechanics, we must secure men well skilled in their profession, who can go before their classes and explain the use of every tool, every piece of machinery, give the value and properties of all material used in manufacture, and labor, side by side, with those whom they are instructing. If this course is pursued, if such an example as this is given, its tendency will be to increase a desire for industry, and its efforts will be healthy on those receiving instruction.

We have never yet found any place in a reformatory for a "kid-glove" gentleman. Neither is there any position in such an institution for a profane or immoral man. It requires men of strict integrity and sterling worth; men of skill; men of Christian hearts; men who love to lift up the fallen, and teach by their own example the ways of righteousness.

The first lesson to be taught a wayward boy is emulation. Through this channel, we sweeten his disposition and gain his confidence. There is no reformatory system which affords so many opportunities for creating a spirit of emulation as the "cottage" or "family" system. We have in view one of many cases which proves this conclusively. Early in the winter of 1884, a young man of a little over sixteen years of age was committed, and brought to the Boys' Industrial School of Ohio, on a charge of arson. He was ushered into the superintendent's office about eleven o'clock at night. His pale face indicated his long confinement in a prison. Indeed, he looked jaded and forlorn on account of it. The superintendent affectionately cautioned him against violating the rules of the institution, and assured him that he had fallen in with friends. After this, he was invited to partake of a lunch previously prepared for the night-watch. From this place, he was taken to his family building, entering the school or family room first, and then the dormitory.

He looked upon his snow-white bed, bade his officer good-night, and then retired. In eleven months afterward, his demerits were all cancelled; and he was released on four months' "leave of absence." On leaving the institution, he conversed with his superintendent quite freely, and gave a full history of his thoughts and his impressions made the night he came to the school. He said: "Your kind admonition against wrong-doing, and then so kindly inviting me, at that late hour at night, to partake of the food prepared for one of your own officers, made me feel that I had at least found one friend



who cared for me. When I went into the school-room, and saw the clean white floor reflecting the gas-light, and the beautiful geraniums blossoming in the windows, I felt that I was being placed in the sweetest furnished home I ever had. When I entered the sleeping room, and was shown my bed, I could scarcely keep from weeping. The bed so clean and white, surrounded by others equally neat and clean, with an occupant in each one of them, made me draw a wide comparison between that place and the dismal cell I had occupied the night before. After I had retired, it seemed that my whole life came up before me; and I saw it as I never saw it before. I never uttered a prayer in my lifetime before; but, at that hour, I poured forth words in silent prayer to my God for having found a home so pure and free from everything that looked like prison." He continued by saying, "I shall never forget the night of Dec. 23, 1884; for it was that night that I appreciated the difference between a *home* and a prison cell." Here is an example of the effects of sweet home influence. The "cottage" or "family" system affords this. It is the only system by which proper emulation can be created. There is no wall so strong as the wall of love. There is no place so dear as a well-regulated home. There is no home complete without a mother's love.

The "cottage" system requires her presence and influence. It is not complete without her. Though she be not the actual mother of the boys under her care, yet she fills the empty place of the mother who lies beneath the sod of some lonely grave, or the mother they have left in some distant city. The "Elder Brother" or "family" officer represents the father of the family. Here, husband and wife work together, zealously and harmoniously, to have the cleanest and neatest cottage, to be the most economical with their boys' clothing, to have the best system and the most order and refinement in the family. In fact, they aspire to have the best conducted family in the institution. This kind of ambition by the "cottage" system is created in each family until every family in the institution is all ablaze with wholesome reformation. The refining influences instilled under such circumstances will never be forgotten. They will be as indelibly fixed upon the minds of the pupils trained under such influences as the past memories related by the celebrated Irish poet, Thomas Moore, in his poem of "Past Memories," when he said,—

"Let Fate do her worst: there are relics of joy,  
Bright dreams of the past, which she cannot destroy,  
Which come in the night time of sorrow and care,  
And bring back the features that joy used to wear.

"Long, long be my heart with such memories filled !  
Like the vase in which roses have once been distilled :  
You may break, you may shatter, the vase, if you will,  
But the scent of the roses will hang round it still."

## EDUCATION AS A FACTOR IN REFORMATION.

BY LEVI S. FULTON.

Education, according to Herbert Spencer, comprehends in its widest sense all the processes by which citizens are moulded to special functions. We may say, in amplification of this definition, that education is not only a factor, but the sum of all the factors required,—the aggregate of forces indispensable for that reformation; the power which, rightly directed, and controlled by what Emerson calls "the restraining power of common sense," will make our reformatory efforts something more than a redistribution of the evils of society.

First of all, in the consideration of the subject, it is important that we have a correct idea of the typical delinquent whose reformation we are seeking,—the class to be educated. We who have lived in reformatory institutions a good part of our lives know what a difference there is between the typical delinquent, be he vagrant or criminal, and the ideal delinquent of the would-be philanthropist, whose tears overflow their eyes in pity for the innocents under our care. We cannot fully accept Lord Palmerston's dogma,—*"All children are born good."* We have deep-seated convictions concerning heredity, constitutional bias, physical and mental limitations, that should fit rather than unfit us for our work.

We know that temperament means much, and heredity and the premature hardening of the disposition more, and that any educational system will fail in reforming all the delinquents committed to our care. The unpromising character of our pupils demands that their education be wisely adapted to their needs. Let us have no drilling of cripples on abstract theories of gymnastics. The majority of you are well acquainted with the juvenile delinquent, the type of his unfortunate class. You know that he is not eager to be thoroughly educated in anything. Old Fagin, the Jew, had trouble with the same traits in his pupils that discourage us in ours,—lack of application, concentration, and persistence. The delinquent is well named. He is delinquent in almost everything that would make him a promising pupil in any school requiring aiming

at a mark rather than drifting with a tide, obedience rather than lawlessness. A system that does not develop—yes, create—the love of useful knowledge in him is labor spent in vain. It must be an education that will *make* him industrious and trustworthy of his own free will. It must be a training of that will, an education not only of the head, but the hands and the heart. It must create the appetite for education, without which there is no assimilation of knowledge.

What the educational system of our reform schools has been in the past, and what it is to-day in the great majority of State institutions, I need not dwell upon. Industry to the delinquent meant punishment and penal servitude.

With the State, the question is not what can be made *of* the boy, but what can be made *out* of him. Even in the school-room there is a mechanical submission to routine, indicating that love of study, that indispensable basis for satisfactory result, is dormant or wholly lacking. The boy is locked up in himself, and that not seldom with the determination not to be unlocked nor interested in his work. The State has him in her power: he thinks he will come out even with the State, if he can. The old system seems to foster rather than to eradicate this feeling.

Seventeen years ago, in my first Annual Report as superintendent of the Western House of Refuge, I gave expression to my convictions concerning the best method for reforming delinquents. As I have not changed my views since then, permit a brief synopsis from that report, in which I stated that a true reformation depended upon the employment of the boy while he was a ward of the State, that education in any one of the useful trades removed the incentives to crime, and that the ability to perform skilled labor made a life of crime unnecessary and undesirable; that a boy with a good trade would find it more advantageous to follow that trade than to return to his former mode of livelihood; and that any acquisition which he had obtained by hard, honest labor had increased his self-respect, and that self-respect was the most potent talisman against an evil life. I also maintained that it was useless to place the majority of the boys with farmers; that the city was the place toward which they would turn their steps, and that the want of employment, and evil associates, would there prove their ruin. The idea I then advanced, that *the teaching of the various mechanical trades should be made a part of our educational system*, I rejoice to say I have lived to see actualized in a measure, and that, too, in the institution then and now under my care.

The necessity of combating crime with skilled labor, which brings ample remuneration and an increase of self-respect, was not called the technologic idea seventeen years ago, but it is the same ; and my faith in its efficacy in reform work has increased with my knowledge of its application.

In February, 1884, Hon. William P. Letchworth, President of our State Board of Charities, suggested that the introduction of technologic training into our institution, taking the Massachusetts Institution of Technology as our guide, would give us just what was lacking in our educational system for the reformation of the children under our care. His suggestion was heartily indorsed by Dr. Anderson, President of the Rochester University, and unanimously approved by our Board of Managers, who asked and were granted an appropriation by our State legislature of \$22,500 to give the system proposed a trial. This appropriation was vetoed by Gov. Cleveland. The next session of the legislature appropriated \$22,500 for the same purpose. Gov. Hill approved the bill ; and we are now reorganizing our institution, making it purely educational in every department, fully believing that, if our reformations *reform*, we must have an education that *educates*,—not the education that satisfied the rural school committee man, who insisted that the three R's were sufficient, "Readin'," "Ritin'," and "Rithmetic," but an education in which the good of the delinquent is made paramount to the revenue of the State ; an education having for its objective point the making of good citizens, and that out of a dangerous class ; an education whose profits are future rather than immediate.

The reorganization of our institution under the technologic or manual training system is the work we are at present engaged in at what for nearly forty years has been known as the Western House of Refuge, the first, I believe, of our reform schools to enter the grand forward movement, making technologic training in the mechanic arts an essential factor in its educational system.

The stone-cutter's hammer has removed the old name from over our front entrance and given place to the new. There has been some dissent to the change from those who do not understand the difference between a Refuge and a State Industrial School. The greatest change of all has been in the boys, the favored few, who have been permitted to pass from the old system to the new, those who have been given the arc of a cabinet work-bench or a blacksmith's forge. The boys who in the old workshops had been sullen and heavy-handed, shirking their work when they could, with no

more ambition to excel than the galley slave at the oar, are eager to get to that bench or forge in the morning. They have found that they can *make* something.

They have discerned their creative faculty. They have learned the enjoyment of exercising that faculty. The pleasure there is in labor has been revealed to them. They feel that they belong to the industrial class, and are apprentices of a grand order. It is worth while contrasting those boys with what they used to be under the old system. We tried the effect of that work-bench on one of our most unpromising inmates, one who had once escaped, and who was looked upon as "pretty low down the ladder" by the better class of boys. The teacher of the carpentry department asked for the boy. He wanted to try to see what he could make of him. After six days in the workshop, that boy was given a draught and lumber; and he made a window frame complete that would be creditable to any mechanic. Can you doubt that his self-respect and good opinion of his handicraft when he went out on the playground were a mighty lever for his reformation? He had something to *show* in proof of his ability to do something in the world. You remember Ruskin says, "A boy cannot learn to take a straight shaving off a plank, or to drive a fine curve without faltering, or to lay a brick level in the mortar, without learning a multitude of other matters which lip of man could never teach him."

That boy is rid of the suspicion continually dragging him down,—that he was the slave of the State, that the State was overworking him, making money out of his detention. That work-bench and the lessons that go with it, beginning with the story of the pine-tree from which he cut the stock for that window frame, where it came from, how it was felled, sawed, and transported to his workshop, have quickened the germ in his life which may be his salvation. He is thinking of other things he can make and will try his hand at. He is interested in what his teacher tells him about the different tools. Perhaps the interesting history of each of them has been made known to him. He begins to see what powers tools are in the world. He would understand better than many the truth of Carlyle's saying,—*"Man without tools is nothing; with tools, he is all."* The laws of mechanical construction fascinate him. He is examining the framework of the buildings he sees. He would like to build a barn after the model of the frame in the workshop. One of these years, he will take up land and build his cabin. He who said that the gulf between the savage and the civilized man was spanned by the seven

hand tools might have added that the gulf disappears with the skilful use of these hand tools,—the axe, the saw, the plane, the square, the chisel, and the file.

The springs of English greatness have been traced to the English workshops. I believe we shall yet trace the true reformation of the juvenile delinquent to the workshop of our technologic reformatory schools. Seven-tenths of our criminals in the State prisons never learned a trade nor followed an industrial pursuit. There is a radical defect somewhere in our reformatory system; and the reforming of that reformatory system will be brought about when the fact is recognized and acknowledged that crime has its source and sustenance in something besides illiteracy, and that reform means more than memorizing the ten commandments. "Education is the generation of power," says Pestalozzi. The technologic system means a generation of power, and the control of that power. It gives us manual training for hand power, mental training for brain power, and moral training for that power which worketh for right-doing, or righteousness.

That the great obstacle in the way of introducing the system into our reform schools lies in the difficulty of securing teachers fitted for the work — earnest men and women equal to all the system demands of its teachers — cannot be overlooked. But let us not magnify this difficulty. So far in my experience, I have found the teachers wanted are those who have genuine interest in its success. The new system demands a higher order of teachers than the State has been satisfied with in the past. The average "keeper" of the old system will not answer for a teacher in the new. Training schools for educators in reform schools will be the next advance movement; and, until then, the special literature pertaining to schools of technology may be studied. It is already considerable. A catalogue may easily be obtained. Let me commend Ham's *Manual Training* to every one who is interested in this subject; also, *The Manual Element in Education*, by Prof. John D. Runkle, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and the reports of the institutions in Europe founded upon the technological idea.

The new system gives us, in reformatories for girls, the most admirable training in all departments of housekeeping. We may look to the institutions under its discipline for trained servants, cooks, house-maids, girls skilful with their needles in plain sewing, dress-making, and the like. "When will the longings of housekeepers for efficient help be satisfied?" asks a writer in the July *Forum*. "The



poor girl who never knew comfort in her own home, and whose inability has caused her discharge from one kitchen to another, *has had no chance for training*. Training schools should be a part of the public school system." Had the writer said that training schools for servants should be a part of every reform school system, she had been nearer right. I see no reason why our reformatories for girls should not be the very best of training schools for servants, the desideratum improving the happiness of the community, particularly that part of it that rules the kitchen.

All the boys in the workshops will not graduate skilful craftsmen. Neither will all the girls in the kitchen and sewing-rooms of the reformatory graduate to do honor to their training. But that a greater proportion of them will not disappoint us and the homes where they are received as servants, we have reason to believe. The girls in our State Industrial School are taught dress-making. Each dress is fitted to the girl, not the girl to the dress. She is instructed in what is most becoming, what is glaring and in bad taste. Such pains does our matron take in giving each girl a becoming outfit that it is not hard to say, when the new gowns for a division are hanging in the sewing-room, just which ones will go to the brunettes and which ones to the blondes; while it is very easy to pick out the dress for flaxen-haired Gretchen from over the Rhine and the hat for Nora from the Emerald Isle. Why should we ignore and suppress that inborn desire of every young girl, if she be not wholly destitute of self-respect, to dress becomingly, to look her best? Why not seize upon it and make the most of it, when we have so little hold, at the best?

No: we do not approve of uniforms in the girls' department of the State Industrial School. A healthy pride and interest in her clothing, the desire that it should be pretty and fit well, are a part of each girl's education when with us. Not only is her dress carefully fitted, but her underclothing, in which we specially seek to have her take a womanly pride. Nor do we banish the ribbons for adornment, nor compel her to cut her hair short after one inexorable rule. We only require perfect cleanliness, and what is in simple and good taste. When our girls are in line for chapel, you will not see two dressed exactly alike. Do you doubt they are in a better frame for the service than if they wore ill-fitting dresses, all of one color and cut, with never a bow of ribbon or superfluous inch of material, their ugly boots bought at a bargain, two years behind the prevailing mode? Our girls have never worn a uniform, as much as we have been urged

to adopt one. Now, we rejoice to see that our departure from established customs was an anticipation of the new order of things.

If the reformation of the juvenile delinquent is to be made paramount to the immediate profit of the State, is there any question as to the system best adapted for accomplishing that reformation?

"The product of the school," said Dr. Belfield before the Chicago Manual Training Association, should be, "not the polished article of furniture, but the polished *perfect boy*." "The great principles which underlie the system," says another advocate of the method, "mean nothing less than a revolution in education." He might have added "a revolution in reform work" as well. If we in charge of the reform schools are to labor for the *pecuniary* benefit of the State, then the contract system is the safest and the best, by all odds. But is it nothing to the State financially, if its juvenile delinquents drift from the gate of the reform school straight to the penitentiary? Shall our reformatories reform? Are we engaged in what Spencer calls a redistribution of vice? The contract system, the public account system, the price system, have been weighed in the balance, and found wanting as educational systems for reformatories; and they must all go. It is my conviction, after long experience under the old dispensation and practical study of the new, that technologic training, supplemented with military drill and discipline, for the boys, is the system above and beyond all others for reforming the child of the State mentally, physically, and morally, and that a technologic training will, if anything can, send the delinquent back to the world a true pupil of industry, fitted to earn his own living, and "to do his duty in that state unto which it hath pleased God to call him."

## THE REFORM SCHOOL PROBLEM.

BY P. CALDWELL.

It is expected of the reform school of to-day that it will remedy the neglect and vice of parents, the failure of public schools, of mission and Sunday-schools, and other moral agencies in the outside world; that it will develop the bent sapling into a straight tree, transform the embryotic criminal into the excellent citizen; that the tendency of its force shall be to the abolition of poorhouses and penitentiaries; and that it shall, by proper training of the children confided to its care, afford them a fair chance for future usefulness and respectability, despite the dire conditions surrounding their birth and early associations.

Geographical location exercises no appreciable influence on character. Therefore, the presumption is that, be the system what it may, about the same sort of children come to all of us. We start out with precisely the same work to do, similar material to work on, and identical results to aim at.

Let us suppose, for example, that we have a hundred miscellaneous cases to deal with. We become the legal custodians of the youngsters, with an entailed obligation not only to train, but to isolate them, and prevent their return to the communities thus relieved of their injurious and menacing presence. At the very outset, we are required to determine how this may best be done as regards all of them, and especially those most persistently vicious and incorrigible.

The superintendent of the "enclosed" house will pleasantly view his surroundings, and feel somewhat secure in the possession of his walls; for he knows that a large proportion will entertain no thought of escaping, and that the new-comers or fractious ones will find the obstacles so insurmountable that, in a little while, they will become somewhat reconciled to the inevitable, and cease to plot for the recovery of liberty. The man who repudiates the fence and depends on the attractiveness of the cottage and the saintly mother will distribute his quota, according to age or some other ground of classification, into several families. But as he is conscious of the existence among them of a certain coterie that will concentrate all the powers of their precociously quickened minds upon the best means of repudiating alike his cottage and his guardianship, and as he is aware that he is without effective means to defeat such a plan, his mind must be harassed by misgivings as to his ability to continue as the law directs.

Those who would repudiate alike the open and the enclosed system are not only confronted by that inevitable "wicked contingent" that has occasioned concern to the others, but must acknowledge at the very outset that there is no provision in either scheme adequate for the involuntary detention of such offenders. As for those sufficiently tractable and amenable to moral influences to be hopefully farmed out to families, I make no protest, provided the requisite families are forthcoming.

Every reform school has not only to do with vice and wickedness found among the young on the highlands of respectability, education, and culture, but must descend into the lowlands of ignorance, coarseness, vulgarity, and crime, and grapple with another perplexing element, whose existence springs from the unholy commerce of

the harlot and the debauchee. Take such a child, cradled in infamy, imbibing with its earliest natural nourishment the germs of a depraved appetite, and reared in the midst of people whose whole lives are an atrocious crime against natural and divine law and the rights of society, and what kind of a reformatory will best answer for this libel upon childhood, when once committed to the reform school? Every reform school system must deal with an annual percentage of such cases. All schemes provide more or less adequately for these extreme cases. Upon its capabilities for a measure of success in guarding, training, and reforming this particular class of children, must depend the claim of any system to public approval and support.

Much has been urged against the inadequacy of the enclosed system properly to accomplish the desired end of reform, and not a little said in eulogy of the claimed excellence of the open plan and farming-out system; but by far the larger part of such commendation has been made by non-experts, self-constituted judges, or by prejudiced advocates of the things extolled. For my own part, I feel safe in making the moderate claim for the enclosed home, well managed, humanely governed, and intelligently directed, that it more efficiently provides for the varied requirements of the widely differing individualities under its control than any other system.

The present provisions for child-saving in our reformatories are, almost without exception, such as not only look to the reformation of the children of criminal and depraved habits, but for the prevention of their acquiring such habits. The largest part of the inmates in any reform school come there through misfortune, largely growing out of the loss of their natural protectors by death or desertion. In such cases, the child is unavoidably placed more or less in association with the really vicious and dangerous, and consequently drifts into legal custody. Such children can scarcely be classed as subjects for reform schools at all, but rather for such training in proper thoughts and actions as is necessary for all children. With these may be classed the small proportion of physical, moral, and intellectual imbeciles, who give little trouble under any system. If it were feasible, I suppose all would agree that both these classes should be domiciled elsewhere than with the really vicious; but, where this is not practicable, no credit can fairly be claimed by any system for giving them a large amount of freedom from restraint, while no more harm need come to them in a school surrounded by a fence of wood than in the cottage system surrounded by a fence

of officers. There is a manifest absence of just ground for the claim of any institution for credit for the reformation of children naturally well intentioned, altogether as good as the majority of children at large and a good deal better than some of them. It seems to me a fair estimate to include in these two classes seventy-five per cent. of reform school children; and it may be considered disingenuous, if not mendacious, to claim credit for reformation in such cases. It is about as consistent with facts as would be the laudation of a parent who, having raised a well-disposed boy to useful manhood, should advertise the fact as a reformatory achievement. Reasoning from experience and observation, it is my deliberate judgment that the greater part of this per cent. are safe to pull through and give good account of themselves under any one of the systems we are considering. As to the remainder, who require all the concentration of our best and most diligent efforts, whose every instinct is in antagonism to that effort, what shall we do with them?

Flexibility must be a distinct feature of any plan worthy of general adoption. Within liberal limits, judgment must direct choice of means to meet specific circumstances and conditions. Love for the child must be, in any system, like sap in a tree, giving life and color to the branches and the leaves, and aroma to the fruit. Loving tact will pluck the real thorns from the road, and pave the way for progress in reform. And watchfulness that knows no sleeping must be another element in the treatment of vicious and depraved childhood.

The interference of adverse parental influence is a mischievous feature in destroying the possibility for good in a reform school. It is hard to convince a boy that he needs reform, if his parents, whenever given access to him, bemoan his detention and laud his good qualities to the skies. It is a question whether such parents should not be restrained from opportunities to exercise so powerful an influence inimical to reform. "Oh!" you say, "restraint again,—restraint, first for the bad boy, and next for his bad parent!" I answer, Yes, most assuredly.

Evil thoughts and habits cannot be eliminated from the child by any amount of freedom. Vice is a stubborn fact, and must be met by solid argument. The child's moral disease must be healed, impurities cleansed, evils removed, and the enemies of his soul crushed, or the child will be lost. To do this, an institution must have its own sledge-hammer, and deliver its own blows, its own remedies. Liberty to the bad boy is not "a consummation devoutly to be

wished." A favorite defence of the advocates of the free and open system, when taxed with their failure to accomplish good with a really bad boy, is that inveterate depravity placed him beyond the pale of possible reform. Such an assumption, if it had any better ground than their need of explanation of their failures, would be a fatal indictment against all reformatory work. We must all admit a certain proportion of partial failures and a few of apparently total ones. To stamp all difficult cases as inveterate is practically to declare the entire system a costly and comparatively fruitless experiment. All reformatories must deal with the most vicious and depraved of society's youth. It is the first duty of their conductors to hold, restrain, and instruct very bad, not good-goody children. It is a grand thing to stop the vicious lad in his descent; but, if that cannot be done, it is something to check the rapidity of his course, and thus keep him longer within the reach of hope and rescue.

What, then, does this open and family system offer in evidence of its superior efficacy for reform in the only cases really requiring it? The family, as such, has no reformatory power. Its agency is formative, not reformatory. It is sad, yet nevertheless true, that the training and discipline which a bad boy needs most he cares least for. "He is rich in goods, and has need of nothing." "He is wiser than seven men that can render a reason." He has distorted ideas of life and his proper relations to society. His whole physical, mental, and moral nature has been pauperized by his self-indulgences and the "foul froth of yellow-backed literature." Truth, honesty, nobility, are things for which he has no attachment, because with them, in many cases, he has had no acquaintance. He is shrewd, cunning, crafty, irreverent, impure, audacious, abhors restraint, and dislikes labor and study. To make a good boy out of this bundle of perversities, his entire being must be revolutionized. He must be taught self-control, patience, neatness, politeness, industry, respect for himself and the rights of others. To attack and destroy ignorance, idleness, coarseness, and vulgarity is not all. This may be done, and yet that which constitutes a noble life may be untouched. His heart must be set right. The Golden Rule, which is the rule of all right living and noble character, must become the ruling principle of his being.

I would lay it down as a cardinal principle of reform that employment is not only one of its indispensable features, but that failure to provide it is inexcusable. "Idleness," says Baxter, "is the drag chain on the wheel of progress. It is the highway of pauperism,



the incubator of nameless iniquities, the devil's couch." I unhesitatingly rank industrial training as next in importance to moral instruction. The facilities for teaching elevating and useful trades should be secured. No community has a right to expect much revenue from a reform school, although it ought to approximate as near to a paying basis as possible, hiring nothing done which the inmates are capable of doing. The workshop is the best place to reform a bad boy.

To develop out of crude material a model boy is the true end and aim of reformatory effort. To bring noble character to the front, to catch the rays of right living and fling them on the hearts of children, must constitute the alphabet of our work. But that is not all. If overcrowded tenement houses, filthy abodes, ignorance, idleness, and intemperance furnish the largest per cent. of criminals and paupers, we must tear down these crime-breeding abodes, make education and industry compulsory, and drive intemperance from the land. Lastly, homes must be made better. This is the primary source that we must seek to purify. To mothers and fathers, we must look with more hope than to the reform school.

## VII.

### Prison Reform.

#### THE PARDONING POWER.

BY GEORGE HOADLY.

It is not my purpose to discuss the pardoning power historically, critically, or statistically, but to present some suggestions founded on a brief personal experience, in the hope of starting a discussion, of eliciting the views of others, and, in the end, thus to be perhaps of service to those to whom this power may be hereafter intrusted.

I do not deny that I approach the consideration of the power of pardon in an unfriendly spirit. Were I vested with unlimited control over this subject-matter, this address might be as brief as the famous chapter on snakes in Ireland,—“There are none.” Few governors have found so much difficulty in the way of its exercise,—at least, few have found occasion for it so rarely. And the theory commends itself to my judgment as little as do the results in practice. Were I to reframe constitutional powers, not much would be left of the power of pardon, and nothing at all under that misleading title. A very strictly guarded judicial rehearing in the few cases of after-developed innocence, with either the general adoption of indeterminate sentences or the creation of a board for the equalization of sentences, with the free use of paroles or tickets of leave, would, in my judgment, better than any power of pardon, fulfil the duty the State owes its people in this regard, withdrawing, from the prisons and the cause of penal justice, the menace to the peace of society, and the discipline of the prison involved in the power of pardon, as ordinarily exercised. Perhaps my adverse opinion is the result of a thorough disbelief in the absurd (so called) maxim that it is better that ninety-nine guilty should escape than one innocent be punished, the fact being that it is just as important to the State to protect the innocent by convicting the guilty as by acquitting the innocent.

But the power to pardon exists, is the subject of daily exercise,

and is not likely to be withdrawn in this generation. The President of the United States and forty-five governors of States and Territories, a few with the aid of assessors or boards of pardon, are clothed with this trust.

Very few of these public officers are qualified by previous training or any special experience for its discharge. No books or records of precedents exist, no rules established by law or custom guide to safe conclusions. What is called discretion in one man, and is caprice in another, determines their action. The consequence is endless variety of results, and a settled conviction among criminals that pardoning goes by favor. For one governor, who had pardoned so recklessly as to provoke the public to wrath, it is said that the excuse was offered that "he could deny Carrie [his wife] nothing, and she could refuse nothing to any one else." I personally vouch for the truth of the following story, having inspected the letters to which it relates: There is on file in a certain governor's office, I shall not say where, the letterpress books and correspondence of a certain governor, I shall not say who. A friend sought from this governor the pardon of two criminals. The governor gave his correspondent the choice, but refused to pardon both, because, as he said, that county's quota was exhausted! This was no joke, but the reason seriously given by an earnest governor, who distributed pardons by geography.

Were there half as good a book on the pardoning power as the Rev. Dr. Spear has written on Extradition, I should be silent; but, as it seems to me in a very high degree important that future governors should have the light for want of which I long groped in the dark, I have accepted the invitation to speak on this subject to-night. Not that I am vain enough to imagine I can furnish the illuminating power,—far from it. But I do hope to provoke debate, and thus to be the flint from which some other's steel may strike the necessary spark. I shall be quite content to play the part of the obscure wire or to be the carbon *in vacuo*, if some other will provide the electric current and illuminating power.

A few days after I had been installed into the office of Governor of Ohio, an application was urgently pressed for the pardon of a poor fellow, so as to let him die at home. I had never considered the subject at all, had no experience or training to help me to a wise answer, could find no assistance in books or precedents. So I did the best thing I could think of. I wrote to Gen. Brinkerhoff for advice, stating at the same time my own tentative adverse judg-

ment, founded, first, on the danger of fraud, of simulated illness, and, secondly, on the belief that, as death is an inevitable fact to each, so death in prison is an ordinary circumstance, not to be considered an added penalty unless hastened or caused by bad treatment in the prison. After some correspondence, the general and I found ourselves of one mind; and, with the certainty of a conclusion founded on the approval and advice of this wise counsellor, it was established in Ohio, for two years at least, that the probability of death during continued confinement is not a sufficient reason for the release of a prisoner, unless the case be one calling for pardon on other grounds.

The danger of yielding to natural sympathy for the dying, in cases of this kind, is illustrated by two instances within my knowledge.

In one, a female prisoner sent a note to another, who had entered upon a course of voluntary starvation, under the pretence of insanity, but was beginning to weaken in her resolution, advising her to keep it up, that the men couldn't stand it much longer, and that she would certainly be pardoned in a few days.

The other was the case of a prisoner who ate soap till he had reached an apparently dying condition, when Gov. Foster yielded to the importunity of his friends for pardon. In a few weeks, the fraud was discovered, when the governor undertook to revoke the pardon and bring the offender back to prison. On *habeas corpus*, the Supreme Court discharged him, holding an unconditional pardon irrevocable. But, in the sequel, the fraud failed; for the soap had done its work more effectually than the prisoner believed. He lived but a short time, falling a victim to the very practice to which he had resorted to cheat the governor. On the whole, it seems to me far safer and wiser to pardon a man so that he may recover, rather than that he may die, out of prison. But I should have been very thankful, could I have referred to and been guided by an enlightened discussion of this subject instead of being compelled to put my wise friend, whose help extricated me at last, to so much trouble.

Another question illustrates the difficulties which meet the tyro in administration at the very threshold of his exercise of this power,— Shall he yield to a doubt of guilt in a case of life and death? If so, why not also in cases of imprisonment? If you say, Yes, in the capital case, and put it on the ground that otherwise you take away, on uncertain grounds, life, which you cannot restore, the same is true, *mutatis mutandis*, in the other case. You cannot give back the liberty, to the continued deprivation of which you consented, by refusing or delaying a pardon in a case of doubtful guilt. Moreover, in each

case, the prisoner has had his trial. The judge and jury have found him or her (very rarely her) guilty beyond reasonable doubt. It is easy for the governor to argue to himself that there is no real question; that the verdict and judgment remove the doubt, render his course clear, and quiet his conscience. Yet I defy any governor, whom I ever saw, to sleep easily, if he let a man hang in whose case he has a reasonable doubt of guilt; while, on the other hand, it never gave me a minute's uneasiness to keep a prisoner in continued confinement under like circumstances. Death closes the career, takes away the chance, seals the book. If the power of pardon have any value in capital cases, it is to protect against the infirmity of human judgment in the jury-box and on the bench. The governor is a man, too often, doubtless, of weaker powers than judge or jury; but he exercises them at a later date, with a certain opportunity of hindsight, so that he can sometimes see more clearly than they, even though acting under the disadvantage of non-contact face to face with the witnesses. Not infrequently, also, the public passion finds expression in a verdict. Twice, I felt it to be my duty to commute sentences to death, after verdicts given under circumstances of great public indignation,—not against the prisoners personally, but against crime and criminals generally, after the Cincinnati mob of March, 1884. As to one of these cases, I may add that almost exactly parallel facts led—six months later, and when the popular fury had evaporated—to a verdict of homicide without premeditation, or, as it is called in Ohio, murder in the second degree. In the other case, the man was guilty of no more than manslaughter, as was indicated by the fact that, five minutes before the affray, he had laid aside a gun, and that he did his victim to death with a pocket-knife upon a sudden collision, in which the deceased struck the first blow,—not, however, without provocation. In both these cases, the trial judge approved the verdict. Yet, if there be any facts of my life of which I am sure of self-approval, they are that I did not misuse my power on these occasions.

There is a difference between capital and other cases in this. In the former, the governor cannot wait long for greater certainty. If he do not commute, the prisoner will hang. But, in cases of imprisonment, delay is possible, and may solve the doubt, perhaps convert it into certainty of guilt. Therefore, I feel doubtfully confident, if I may use the contradictory phrase, that the governor acts wisely who commutes to imprisonment for life (itself a fearful punishment, remember,) the sentence of death, where, after exhaustive study, he finds himself under reasonable doubt of guilt, but declines to pardon

an imprisoned prisoner until innocence has been shown beyond reasonable doubt. The doubt does not justify *pardon* in either case. No prisoner should be *pardoned* simply because, after exhausting all the sources of legal investigation, a doubt of guilt remains in the mind of the governor; for, in legal contemplation, a pardon removes the guilt, and makes a new man in the State. But commutation has no such consequence: it is the mere remission of punishment, leaving the offender as guilty in the eye of the law as before. The true and only reason for the exercise of the power of pardon is innocence: the usual reason for the commutation is excessive and disproportioned punishment.

Altogether the most numerous cases in which what is called the pardoning power is invoked are those, not of absolute freedom from guilt, but of over-conviction, conviction of a higher grade of crime, involving more severe punishment than that actually deserved, and cases of excessive sentence,—namely, for longer periods than the crime deserved. To illustrate. In Ohio, boys under sixteen are sent to the Boys' Industrial School (formerly called the Reform School) by judicial sentence. Boys under twenty-one years of age may be transferred from the penitentiary to the Reform School by the governor. I thus once transferred a lad of seventeen, who, please God and praise God, will in time make a good man. He had been sentenced to *seven* years' imprisonment, on a plea of guilty, by a conscientious and careful judge, who came to me in person to beg for the transfer. The facts were that four boys in the lower walks of life,—not bad boys, however (the boy in question proved a very high character by his employers),—companions and playmates, fell in with a man and woman fighting. They took the woman's part; and one of the boys threw a brick, which struck the man's temple, and killed him. For this crime, a manslaughter, all four were sent to the Ohio Penitentiary, and thence, by my transfer, to the Reform School. On the trial of number one, number two testified that he, not number one, threw the brick; but the jury disbelieved him, and convicted number one. Number two then plead guilty; and the judge gave him seven years,—not in a reformatory or workhouse, remember, but in the penitentiary. The minimum sentence in Ohio, in cases of manslaughter, is one year; the maximum, twenty years. When the judge besought me to transfer this boy, I easily and quickly saw my duty to lie in that direction, but was much concerned to know how he came to inflict so severe a sentence. His answer was: "The boy plead guilty. It was a case of homicide: a human life was taken." "But,



Judge," I replied, "the legislature have provided that there may be sentences for only one year in this class of cases. Can you conceive of a case calling for the minimum more loudly than this,—the case of a boy, a good boy, who has taken sides with a woman in a fight with a man, and without purpose or thought of serious harm has caused death, and then saved the State the cost of a trial?" I could not satisfy my friend, the judge, nor he me. I cite this as an exaggerated specimen of injustice in sentencing. But cases of this kind are very common. Dyspeptic judges inflict dyspeptic sentences. Judges in feeble health, and judges with bad tempers or cross wives or sick children, old bachelors, reflect their infirmities and disabilities in sentences.

How, then, shall we deal with these cases? Undoubtedly, as long as specific sentences continue, and until experience shall prove, if it ever do, the wisdom of the substitution of a general system of indeterminate sentences, the correction of these inequalities must be found in the power of pardon or some analogous power.

We are trying the parole or ticket of leave in Ohio, with high hopes of success; and both the present and late governors have adopted the rule not to listen to an application for pardon, except in cases of alleged innocence, if the prisoner be admissible to pardon. The reasons for this course are many. The means open to the governor to satisfy himself in the discharge of his trust are very imperfect.

The Ohio law does not admit second-term prisoners nor prisoners for life to parole; nor does it permit a parole until the minimum sentence has been suffered, and of course does not apply where only the minimum was inflicted. But it is applicable in all the cases I have referred to of undue and excessive sentences, except the single case of a prisoner really guilty of manslaughter only, who (as not infrequently happens) has been found guilty of the higher grade of homicide, involving life-long detention.

According to the rules established by the Board of Managers of the Ohio Penitentiary, and approved by the governor, the conditions of parole are the following:—

When a prisoner is received, he is assigned to a class which may be said, for convenience' sake, to be upon probation. He remains in this class for six months. If, then, his conduct has been unexceptional, he is promoted to the first class. If, on the contrary, he has meanwhile misbehaved, he is degraded to the third or lowest class, from which, however, good conduct will in time release him again, and give him another chance of promotion. A candidate for

parole must be shown never to have been a prisoner in any penal institution, to have been at least four months in the first class, employment must be provided for him by his friends, and his conduct and character must have been such that at least four of the five managers believe he will conform to the rules and regulations of his parole, so that they are willing to grant it.

These rules require him to proceed at once to his place of employment, there to remain, if practicable, at least six months; not to leave the State, not to change his abode except by consent of the managers; to report his earnings, surroundings, and prospects to the secretary of the board on the first day of each month; to live an honest life, free from bad associates; and to abstain from the use of intoxicating liquors.

While thus paroled, the prisoner remains in the legal custody of the Board of Managers,—is, in theory, still imprisoned, and is liable to be returned to actual imprisonment at any time, at the discretion of the board.

The immediate effect of the adoption of the parole system was to diminish the work of the Governor of Ohio in the department of pardons from one-half to two-thirds. This I do not count a public benefit, for the governor should by right be a member of the Paroling Board, and do his share of the work; but it involves the advantage of continued restraint of the prisoner.

I have spent few more sorrowful hours than those immediately after I heard that a prisoner I had pardoned, with the hope of a life rescued from crime, had fallen, and been returned to prison upon a new conviction. Fortunately, and to my great relief, it turned out to be a false alarm. The paroled prisoner lives under a sword of Damocles. He knows that he is liable to be returned to prison, that the board is not required to assign reasons for his recapture, and that only by an exemplary life or by a successful escape can he avoid the reimprisonment. He knows, too, that in time he will be entitled to an absolute discharge by the expiration of his term, or, in cases of indeterminate imprisonment, at the pleasure of the board, but that, if he forfeit the conditions of parole, all his credits and merits will be lost, and that the rest of his original term of sentenced imprisonment, without diminution for good conduct, must be spent at hard labor in seclusion.

The community, on their side, gain the benefit of a life not transferred immediately from prison to freedom without preparation, with a capital of perhaps five dollars and a suit of clothes, but in which

liberty is restrained by conditions, and habits of industry and self-control must be cultivated before complete emancipation.

For many years past, the Governor of Ohio has been permitted to grant conditional pardons, with the liability of return to prison in case of breach of condition,—first, however, proved to the satisfaction of a probate judge. The usual condition is that of abstinence from the use of liquor as a beverage. Believing that in most cases this condition was broken, and knowing that the judicial ascertainment of the breach was difficult, I asked Gov. Foster what his experience had been of its advantages. He answered, "It helps the prisoner, enables him more easily to refuse an invitation to drink, withdraws temptation,—nothing else." My own experience with this branch of administration was painful. Of perhaps twenty conditional pardons granted by me, I am *sure* that the condition has been kept in one case only. In four cases, I know of its breach; and, in two of these, the offenders have been returned to and are now in captivity. So far as we have gone, the parole system tells a much better tale than this. Of nearly one hundred paroled prisoners, all but one are believed to be doing well. This one, I am told, has disappeared, whether dead or returned to crime is not known.

Of course, the value of the parole system depends on its administration. A parole is a benefit which ought to be *earned* in the prison, which, if granted for reasons of political or personal favor, is mischievous and wrong. Nevertheless, it is a step in the right direction, a great advance upon and improvement of the pardoning power as heretofore administered in Ohio, at least.

Looking back to my two years' administration, altogether its most satisfactory outcome is found in the exercise of the power to transfer to the Reform School. In November, 1884, there were 1,365 prisoners in the Ohio Penitentiary. Of these, 250 were boys under twenty-one years of age. Shocked by this enormous proportion of juvenile crime, I sedulously sought for relief. I cannot say it came; for in November, 1885, the number of boys under twenty-one had increased to 320 out of a total of 1,470. Of 766 admitted to the prison between November, 1884, and 1885, 158 were under twenty-one years of age. This increase was despite the fact that, after much consideration, I had adopted the rule to which I adhered while my official life lasted,—to transfer every boy to the Reform School of whom any reputable citizen of Ohio would hold out the hope that the indulgence was not likely to be misused, and that there were reasonable hopes of reclamation. The result has been most satisfactory. Of

eighty boys thus relieved from the penitentiary and given into the custody of Superintendent Hite of the Reform School, one became and is insane, six went back on us, and seventy-four proved worthy. Of thirteen boys granted leave of absence with the highest standing from the Reform School, during my last year, nine had been transferred from the penitentiary. Gov. Foraker, I am told, continues the rule of free transfers. I am sure he will never regret it. To save from criminal association and perversion one young soul is a most satisfactory work. With a full and thankful heart, I cherish the hope that my official action has contributed something to the redemption of so many.

All theories of the power of pardon must depend on this postulate; namely, that the State shall do its duty by the criminal. We take life, but only for treason or murder. The State whose jails and penitentiaries are unclean or ill-ventilated, or whose treatment of prisoners endangers their health, either by torture or neglect, cannot dispense with the power to pardon. In two instances, I found county jails in such condition that their inmates were dying of slow poison. But the men had not been sentenced to death; and the gallows, not slow poisoning by sewer or privy gas, is the method appointed by law for taking life. As the prisoners in these cases, four in number, were suffering a punishment unknown to our laws, and irreconcilable with the duty the State owed them, they had not long to wait for deliverance after I had seen and smelt the filthy dens in which they were kept.

The parable of the unjust judge is often repeated in the offices of the governors. But importunity is no sign of merit. Indeed, it would be nearer the fact to treat applications for pardon as meritorious in inverse ratio to the importunity of the petitioners. Yet there are some marked exceptions. In one case of excessive importunity addressed to Gov. Foster and myself, and in which it had no effect upon him, but I pardoned, he expressed surprise at my action. I was able to convince him I had made no mistake; for I had not in fact yielded to the importunity, although I must confess it induced me to give more and speedier attention to the case.

Aside from this instance of successful importunity, if such it be called, in which the prisoner's conduct and character and the facts of his case were under close investigation for nearly a year, let me, at the risk of fatiguing you, describe the three cases in which importunity was most diligently, though unsuccessfully, resorted to with me. One was the petition of a mother reduced to poverty by the loss of her

son's wages. His crime was robbery of a traveller by rail. He was a brakeman. His villany was accomplished by the use of drugged whiskey prepared for the purpose. Number two was also the petition of a mother. Her sweet son, only seventeen years of age, at the instigation of a prostitute, sought to rob his Sunday-school teacher, a cripple, who kept a jewelry store. After a warm greeting by the teacher, from whom the boy had been absent for some weeks, they knelt in prayer together; and then, the work and the Christian offices of the day being concluded, as the victim rose from his knees and turned to lock his office safe, the villain stabbed him to death in the back. A weak jury spared his life; and, a year later, a colored murderer was hung to a lamp-post by a mob in the city of his trial, because the angry public would trust no jury again. Number three was a wife's appeal for her husband. She was the sweetest, prettiest, most modest and gentle old German lady I have ever seen. Her husband had been many years in prison on a life sentence. I could not get her at first to tell me what he had done, the nature of his crime. All she would say was, "He vos crazy, or he wouldn't have done it." I shudder even now, as I shuddered when I first learned the facts of his awful crime. He had driven her from home in his brutal rage, because of some trivial offence, not leaving her time to catch up her baby, which happened to be in another room. In mortal fear, she fled to a neighbor's for protection. He followed. The door was barred. He cursed, and threatened that, if she would not come out, he would kill their baby. The neighbors detained her, and kept him out. He returned to their home, sharpened a table knife by whetting on the stove, and with it cut off the baby's head. A doubt of his sanity induced the jury to reduce the grade of his crime, so as to save his life. For such a prisoner, sane or insane, the prison or the prison hospital is the best home for life; and I can conceive of no misuse of the pardoning power more mischievous than would be in this and the other cases which I have described, yet they many times taxed my courtesy beyond description, requiring me to keep in constant remembrance, lest I should altogether lose patience and temper, that I was dealing with a mother or a wife.

In States whose laws provide for boards of pardon, the governor has help in the performance of this branch of his duties. But these are the minority. In the majority of States, little or no aid is furnished him. To convict or acquit, judicial tribunals are provided, judges of learning and experience, students trained in the administration of jurisprudence as lawyers before going upon the bench,

juries of citizens unbiassed between the parties, codes of procedure, rules of evidence and practice,—all to this end, that there shall be no conviction except of the guilty, and no escape for him; and, when all these precautions have been taken, after warrants of arrest (issued only upon sworn affidavits), after preliminary examinations, investigations by grand juries, indictments to which at least twelve of the sixteen grand jurors must assent, trials before petit juries, rights of challenge for cause, and peremptorily, rights to employ counsel, counsel furnished by the State to paupers, cross-examinations, arguments, motions for new trial, writs of error and appeals, the State, which has taken all this pains to be sure that only the guilty shall suffer, clothes the governor, usually an ambitious politician, not necessarily skilled in legal analysis, with the widest and most sovereign dispensing power. At his fiat verdicts and sentences crumble, punishment ceases, and the guilty emerges to liberty, clothed with new character, washed from stain, as if born to new civic life. The only restraint upon its widest and wildest exercise is the governor's own conscience and sense of right or policy, his prudence, and his native or acquired capacity to see through a lie. He cannot send for persons and papers. Oaths before him are extra-judicial, and false oaths involve no punishment. In his tribunal, the State has no representative except the governor himself. Add to this that even the best of people often think it no wrong to gratify a neighbor by petitioning for the pardon of his wicked and worthless son, and you will see how open to imposition and deceit, how slightly, if at all, protected, is the exercise of this power. In Ohio, the application for pardon must be advertised in the county paper for three weeks, and a like notice given to the prosecuting attorney, who is then required to furnish the governor with a full statement of the case. But there is no statute of limitations to petitions for pardon; and prosecutors are often changed, sometimes have left the State, or are dead before the pardon is sought. This protection seems and is very inadequate. Yet it is all that is secured to the governor by law. I am glad to say for the prosecuting attorneys of my State that they do this part of their work well and freely, rarely requiring to be prodded by correspondence, and occasionally, but very seldom, signing petitions and advising against pardons at the same time. I found that jurors were usually quite free to sign petitions for pardon, as if they felt a certain compensation therein for having been obliged to perform the disagreeable duty of convicting. I have once or twice remonstrated with friends who yielded to this weakness,



but gained nothing by my motion, except a sort of taffy to the governor,—“Oh! we had faith in you: we knew you would look into the case closely.”

Besides prosecuting attorneys, trial judges were always ready to help me. The prosecutors were bound by law to furnish their information and advice. Upon the judges, I had no legal claim, only the right to appeal to them as good citizens, familiar with the cases. No one of them ever refused my appeal; and it came at last to be my universal, as it was a most useful, rule to take their opinions. In the one case which gave me more anxiety than any other (except cases of life and death), and in which every prominent citizen of the county (except the judge and prosecutor), led by the present lieutenant-governor of the State and the senator from the county, had petitioned in writing or in person for pardon, the judge volunteered to and did visit Columbus, to furnish more full explanations of the case than were possible in writing. I cannot praise too much the willingness of the judiciary to furnish help in cases of this kind. The judges gave me wise and discriminating advice, quite the opposite of that which, in most cases, came from jurors.

Why should not the State which employs a prosecutor, and makes it his duty to convict, if he think he ought, and who usually convicts, if he can, help the governor, by employing an attorney-general to protect sentences? As the work is now done, the pardoning business is carried on mainly by earwiggling. At the governor's office, at his residence, on the streets, in the cars, at the theatre, in church,—everywhere, the work of solicitation proceeds. His family physician is enlisted, and takes advantage of a visit caused by a slight illness of the governor to tell him how much he has become interested in the fate of young So-and-so, whose lawyer handled his case so badly. The governor's pastor calls on him with a tale of how a most interesting but unfortunate young man from Brother Somebody-else's church has been convicted by perjury. And, if Mrs. Governor can only be enlisted, then the friends of the prisoner are sure of success; while all the governor is certain of is that his sense of duty and love for his wife are exposed to collision.

For all this, the remedy is publicity,—open and public sessions for the consideration of applications for pardon; no testimony except under oath or official reports; the State as well as the petitioner to be represented by counsel; all proceedings, including the governor's decision, to be publicly reported in and exposed to the censure of the press; in other words, an official, *quasi*-judicial scrutiny substituted for private solicitation.

For the words "pardon," "mercy," "clemency," "grace," "favor," do not belong to the proper exercise of this power in this country. These are attributes of the Searcher of hearts. Ages and countries, which ascribed divinity to the monarch, might well use them; but, with us, "public office is a public trust," and the power of pardon exists only to remedy a miscarriage of justice. If justice has been adequately done by the judicial tribunals, there is no reason for gubernatorial intervention; and its exercise can only prove mischievous to the best interests of society and often to the prisoner himself.

Of proof of reform as a reason for pardon, I have not yet said a word. I have no confidence in reform of which the only proof is conduct within the walls of a prison. The best prisoners are often the worst villains; that is the road to early deliverance, as they know. Dr. Byers told me of two repentant rascals who insisted on baptism by immersion while he was prison chaplain. "I ought to have drowned them," indignantly added the doctor. You know the old lines:—

"When the devil was sick,  
The devil a monk would be;  
When the devil was well,  
The devil a monk was he."

Not that I deny the possibility of reform within prison walls. Many a wild and wayward life has been turned to good by imprisonment. But you can never be sure of this until the test of liberty has been made. The parole, not the pardon; probation, not emancipation,—is the remedy. I do not urge that the doors of prisons be opened outward less frequently than heretofore. More often, much more often, will it be best to let the prisoner emerge, to walk in his own ways,—but not to walk alone. What I urge is constant police supervision, constant liability to reimprisonment, until the test of actual liberty shall have proved the reality of reform and the safety of the grant of legal liberty.

## PRISON REFORM.

BY GEN. ROELIFF BRINKERHOFF.

The two dominant ideas in the creation of prisons and in the treatment of prisoners are, or at least ought to be, (1) the deterrent influence upon those outside, and (2) the reformation of the prisoners inside.

The old doctrine of retaliation, with its requirement of an eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth, is not tenable under the Christian dispensation; and experience has shown that it is not effective in attaining the only end proper to be aimed at by any form of imprisonment,—namely, the protection of society.

Until the beginning of the present century, deterrence alone seems to have been considered by legislators in dealing with persons convicted of crime; and they took it for granted that the deterrent influence of punishment would be in proportion to its severity. Even now, with a majority of people, this seems to be the dominant idea. This conception, however, has long since been proved a fallacy.

In England, this doctrine of deterrence by severity was carried out until the death penalty was inflicted for stealing a sheep. Even as late as the time of Blackstone, only a century ago, one hundred and sixty offences were punishable with death, and hangings were daily spectacles at almost every cross-roads. The results, however, were the reverse of what was expected; and crime steadily increased. At last, under the stimulus of John Howard's heroic life and death, it began to dawn upon the governing classes of England that the religion they professed, and had established by the State, taught a different system for dealing with the criminal classes, and had actually announced that kindness to the lowly and mercy to prisoners would be the crowning sign of the presence of its Founder upon the earth.

"The spirit of the Lord is upon me, because the Lord hath anointed me to preach good tidings unto the meek. He hath sent me to bind up the broken-hearted, to proclaim liberty to the captives, and the opening of the prisons to them that are bound." And thereupon, slowly, but surely and steadily and continuously, the old system, based upon the halter, the lash, and the dungeon, was abolished; and in its place came the Christian conception of the brotherhood of men, recognizing that even criminals are children of a common Father, and the State, in the place of a parent, should train and discipline, but not destroy, the erring members of the family intrusted to its care.

The result has been that now, not only in England, but in all enlightened countries, the death penalty is limited to such offences as treason and murder; and physical tortures, of all kinds, have been almost entirely abandoned. In their place have come imprisonment, with classification, productive labor, industrial training, and various other appliances and methods for the reconstruction and reformation of the prisoner, so that upon his discharge he shall be a law-abiding citizen, and shall earn an honest living by honest industry.

So everywhere, where these methods have been fully and fairly tested, crime has decreased, and society in all respects has been largely benefited. Deterrence has not been weakened, but reformation has been largely increased.

*Classification.*—In the reformation of prisoners, the most important requirement, perhaps, is classification. So long as old offenders are retained in association with other prisoners, not much of value can be accomplished by any kind of treatment. This class of prisoners does not include more than twenty per cent. in our penitentiaries, or more than ten per cent. in our jails; but they are the teachers, the organizers, the captains of crime, and their separation from other prisoners is the imperative beginning of all reformatory measures. We might as well attempt the purification of a well with a cesspool discharging into it as attempt the reformation of prisoners with old offenders in association with them.

In Ohio, under recent legislation, any prisoner convicted of a third offence is adjudged a habitual criminal, and may be held for life; and we heartily commend this policy for adoption elsewhere.

This requirement of separation as a preventive of moral contagion is so clearly essential that it seems strange that it is so rarely enforced. In our jails especially, where, on an average, four-fifths of all prisoners are kept, and where a majority are awaiting trial, and many are only convicted of trivial offences, it seems the height of folly to allow free range among them to old offenders; and yet there are not half a dozen jails in the United States where this folly is not practised. A small-pox patient in a crowded school-room is no more objectionable than a professional thief in a congregate jail.

It is very evident, therefore, that any large advance in the reform of prisons must commence with the county jails; and such separation must be secured as shall not allow any one prisoner to associate with any other prisoner during the period of his incarceration in such jail. This may be considered as Axiom No. 1 in the science of Prison Reform.

After the transfer of prisoners to the penitentiary, classification must be continued; but the extent of it is a matter about which penologists are not entirely agreed. In the Eastern Penitentiary, at Philadelphia, and in all the convict prisons of Belgium, and also with the more hardened criminals in several other European countries, each prisoner is kept separate from all other prisoners during the entire term of imprisonment. This is known as the cellular or individual system. Formerly, the Western Penitentiary of Pennsylvania was maintained upon this system; but it has been abandoned for many years. Recently, the Director of Prisons in Belgium has questioned the wisdom of its continuance; and the general drift of opinion among penologists seems to be in favor of the system of progressive classification, better known, perhaps, as the Crofton system, which is in operation in various European countries, but notably in Ireland, where it was established by Sir Walter Crofton, in 1854. It is also in operation, in a modified form, at Elmira, N.Y., Sherborn and Concord, Mass., and at Columbus, Ohio.

This system, in its most approved form, is initiated by a period of cellular separation of sufficient length to afford the prisoner an opportunity for reflection and instruction, and to create an earnest desire for employment under the more natural conditions of congregate labor. He is then put to work, in company with other prisoners of the first grade, to rise or fall under the marking system.

In Ireland, the progressive system has three stages, and three separate prisons for each sex. This system, as described by Dr. Wines, requires: (1) A penal stage of cellular separation, continuing eight months, which may be prolonged to nine months for misconduct. This stage is passed at Mount Joy, Dublin. (2) A reformatory stage, where the progressive principle comes into play, and where the prisoner, in passing through, must attain four separate classes by a system of marks for character and conduct. This stage is passed at Spike Island, at the southern extremity of Ireland. (3) A probationary stage to verify the reformatory action of the preceding discipline. This is passed at the intermediate prison at Lusk, twelve miles from Dublin. This is really no prison, as far as bolts, bars, and walls are concerned; for there are none. From Lusk, the prisoners are discharged upon ticket of leave.

This tripartite system of prisons has been very successful in Ireland, and also in Italy; but equal results would seem to be attainable in a single prison, as has been shown elsewhere in Europe, and also in this country, at Elmira, N.Y.

In Ohio, we have adopted a tripartite system, but without the necessity of transfer from one to the other, in order to obtain a discharge upon ticket of leave. We have (1) a reformatory for boys and a reformatory for girls; (2) an intermediate prison for young men convicted of their first offence, which is now in process of construction, and is to be conducted on the Elmira pattern; (3) a prison for the more confirmed criminals. Each of these has, or will have, a classification of its own; and a prisoner will go up or go down according to character and conduct, attained through the marking system. We have also a tripartite classification of minor offenders in the workhouse at Cleveland, which is doing well. And we hope to gather all minor offenders in district workhouses, and then devote our jails exclusively to prisoners awaiting trial, to be kept under the cellular system of absolute separation.

In England, the progressive system is in operation, but not through separate prisons, as in Ireland. Cellular separation is required for all prisoners awaiting trial, and, after conviction and transfer to a convict prison, is continued for a period not exceeding nine months. After this, they are worked in association.

The wisdom of the progressive system has been so fully tested by experience that the consensus of opinion among prison experts the world over now seems to be almost unanimous in its indorsement; and I am very sure we shall make no mistake in recommending it for general adoption in the United States. With Elmira for a model and Brockway for a guide, there is no occasion for any large mistakes in its application.

*Industrial Employment.*—Another requirement of prison reform is the employment of prisoners in such industries as shall be not only productive, so as to contribute largely to the maintenance of the prison, but which shall also be instructive, so as to prepare the prisoner for self-support after discharge.

In the United States, we have never had, to any large extent, what is known as penal labor, which is labor without production, such as the shot drill, the tread-mill, the crank, etc.; but we have so conducted prison labor, and so characterized it in our laws, as to make it a punishment rather than a privilege, or as a means of reformation. Productive labor, in any of the forms prevalent in this country, is, doubtless, a vast advance upon the old systems of "penal labor" or of idleness; but it is far short of what the best experience in the management of prisons has shown to be attainable.

Just now, the different forms of convict labor are in controversy in



almost every State ; and, therefore, it is not possible as yet to say just what particular form of labor is most conducive to prison reform. But, certainly, it can be safely asserted that prison experts the world over are, substantially, a unit in the condemnation of what is known as the contract system, and in the conviction that no large advance in prison reform can be made until it is abolished. Just what should be substituted for it is still undetermined, but yet it is very safe to assert that a preponderance of opinion among our most experienced prison men is in favor of what is known as the piece-price plan.

My own opinion is that the prison management should not be restricted to any particular system, but should be left free to adopt that which experience shall determine to be best. This particular question, however, is not properly within the province of this paper. The only point I wish to insist upon is that productive labor is a large item of progress in prison reform, and that to its proper administration we must look largely for progress in the future, and that I see no reason why it should not be productive as well as instructive. In fact, if prison labor is placed upon the same plane with outside labor, and every prisoner is credited with what he earns and is charged with what is expended for him, I see no reason why the prison should not only be self-supporting, but should also be the best school possible to make the prisoner self-respecting, and to teach him how to be self-supporting after his release.

*The Indefinite Sentence.*— In the line of prison reform there is, perhaps, no step forward more important than what is known as the indefinite sentence. By this is meant a sentence which has no specific limit, but the criminal is simply convicted and sentenced for the crime of which he is charged, and may be held for the maximum period of imprisonment specified by the law or may be discharged at the minimum period thus fixed. For example, burglary under the laws of Ohio is punishable for a period not less than one year, or longer than ten years, so that, under the indefinite sentence for this crime, the convict may be held for ten years or he may be discharged in one year.

An indeterminate sentence is one which has no maximum limit ; but, as there are no examples of it in actual operation in any prison at present, we will confine ourselves more especially to the indefinite sentence which is in operation at Elmira, and also to a limited extent in Ohio.

These forms of sentence, however, are similar in effect, and assume as a principle that a person convicted of crime is morally

diseased, and should be sent to prison, as an insane patient is sent to a hospital to be cured, and should not be discharged until cured.

This form of sentence was first advocated by Frederick Hill, Inspector-General of Prisons in Scotland, and was first put into operation, in a modified form, by Maconochie at Norfolk Island, in 1836, with a success in the way of reformation which has rarely been equaled. It has been approved by the best authorities upon penology in all countries; and Dr. Despine, of France, one of the deepest thinkers on penal science, goes so far as to say that the indeterminate principle will become a necessity whenever a real reformatory system of prison discipline comes to be generally introduced, and pursued in sober earnest. This doctrine has also received the emphatic indorsement of Dr. E. C. Wines, the greatest of all our American penologists.

Of course, a prison conducted upon this principle requires the highest wisdom, capacity, and integrity for its administration; and its adoption in the average American prison, where the management is changed with every change of political parties, and where brute force and party fealty are the main requirements for a prison officer, would be preposterous. So with all other reformatory measures, if politics is to rule our prisons and trained efficiency is to be secondary, the best thing to do is to return to the old slave system of contract labor, and make the dominant idea money-making instead of manhood-making.

The American people, however, we may trust, are not demented; and, now that the question of civil service reform is up for settlement, let us have the faith to believe that it will be settled right, and that the spoils system will go glimmering into the dream of things that were.

*Conditional Liberation.*—Another phase of progress in prison reform, which is of great value, is that of conditional liberation. It had its origin in a blind attempt of the British Parliament to deplete the prisons of the kingdom, which had become crowded on account of the repeal of laws establishing penal colonies. The results were generally unsatisfactory; but, fortunately, the administration of the law in Ireland fell into the hands of Capt. (now Sir Walter) Crofton, through whose genius the system of progressive classification was invented, in order to sift out the prisoners best entitled to a ticket of leave. The result was the creation of a new era in the management of prisons, which has now become a leading feature in all reformatory systems.

This system, with its three separate stages in three separate prisons, has already been described. The ticket of leave, however, in reality constituted a fourth stage of equal, if not greater, value than the others.

The ticket of leave was simply a conditional release, and valid only during good behavior; and, upon breach of its terms, the prisoner could be recalled, and compelled to serve out his term of sentence within the prison walls. Under Crofton's system, the prisoner was not released until a place of employment was secured for him; and then he was required to report at stated periods to some police officer or other person designated by the prison officers. So long as his conduct was good, the instructions were to encourage and help him; but, if otherwise, he was to be returned to prison. The success was admirable, and the number of convicts in Ireland sank in a few years to one-fourth of the former number.

In England, however, where the ticket of leave was granted without the progressive system for selection, and without subsequent supervision by the police, the results, as might have been expected, were unsatisfactory, and continued so until 1864, when a new penal servitude act was passed, ordering that all convicts on parole or ticket of leave should report themselves to the police every month. Since then, as in Ireland, crime has steadily decreased; and this form of conditional discharge is now fully established as a principle of the highest value.

In the United States, the ticket of leave, upon the Crofton method, is now in operation at Elmira, in Massachusetts, and recently in Ohio. In reformatories, also, the system is in general operation in connection with the indefinite sentence.

In many of the States, we have what are known as conditional pardons, which is a form of parole or ticket of leave, which is of some value, but not of the highest on account of the absence of police supervision.

A ticket of leave, at its best estate, must be earned by good conduct under the progressive system. Otherwise, it is apt to degenerate into mere favoritism, and results in more evil than good, as it did in England.

The ticket of leave should be purely a reward of merit, and outside influences should have nothing whatever to do with the granting of it, except in the guarantee of employment; and, after it is granted, it must be followed by careful supervision and regular reports at stated periods.

*Education.*—Of the agencies of progress in the reformation of prisoners there are none more powerful for good than education. Among the causes of crime, ignorance is probably the most potent of all. Of prisoners in the United States, one-third at the North and two-thirds at the South are entirely illiterate, and can neither read nor write; and, of the remainder, a majority have but a smattering of school education, and but very few have any industrial training.

If, in the term education, we include industrial and moral training, we shall find but a small percentage of prisoners who can be considered educated. Under these circumstances, progress in the reformation of prisoners can only be accomplished largely by educational methods; and these methods must be persistent, continuous, and compulsory.

At Elmira, every prisoner goes to school; and he cannot obtain his discharge except by passing the different grades, through rigorous examinations and by attaining the required marks.

Every prison ought to be conducted so that every prisoner should learn to read and write, and should be so trained in some industrial employment as to be able to earn an honest living when he goes out. Any prison which falls short of these requirements fails to attain even the minimum demands of prison reform, and needs reconstruction.

When we remember that a large majority of all prisoners are young men, whose habits of mind and body are by no means fossilized beyond the capacity of change or reconstruction, we can understand the effect of steady, daily discipline in these educational lines, and especially when supplemented by the enormous leverage of the indeterminate sentence. The truth is, such forces, wielded by a humane, just, and kindly administration, are almost resistless in their power for good; and the prisoner finds himself re-created, in spite of himself, by the commanding power of habit. Maconochie does not exaggerate in the least when he says, "By right arrangements, and with God's blessing, we may approach indefinitely near to the reform of *all* our criminals."

*Prison Punishments.*—Perhaps in no one thing is progress in prison reform more conspicuous than in the amelioration of prison punishments. A dozen years ago, and there was scarcely a prison in the United States where corporal punishments were entirely abandoned; and, twenty years ago, almost any warden would have laughed at the idea of conducting a prison without the daily infliction

of bodily pain in some form. Even now there are but few prisons where corporal punishments are entirely out of use ; but, in all well-conducted prisons, they are now the exception, and not the rule. And so rapidly are they disappearing that, within another decade, it is safe to predict they will only be known as relics of barbarism.

Last October, at the National Prison Congress in Detroit, when Major McClaughry, with twelve years' experience as warden of the penitentiary at Joliet, Ill., announced the entire absence of corporal punishments at the great prison under his care, with its sixteen hundred prisoners, and declared that any officer who inflicted such punishments not only injured the discipline of the prison, but degraded himself, he was greeted with applause which seemed substantially unanimous.

All honor to Capt. Maconochie, who fifty years ago inaugurated the new era, and declared that "vindictive personal punishments are corrupting in their influence. They appeal to the craven feelings of men, but they much more generally stimulate their ferocious and sensual ones" !

Again, in connection with the additional degradation of convict clothing, he wisely says : "What do manly though degraded men care for chains, stripes, yellow jackets, dark cells, etc. ? They despise even more than they hate them ; and a fruitful source of crime, where they prevail, is the coveted honor of braving them."

The truth is, if we expect to reform men or even maintain the highest discipline, we must appeal to something better than the lash, the thumb-screw, or other form of physical torture. Possibly there may be exceptions ; but, certainly, they are very rare.

*Religion and Prison Reform.*—As an element of progress in prison reform, religion, also, is entitled to the highest consideration. As Christianity has been the impelling force in the creation of prison reform, it must remain an instrument in its administration, if the best results are to be attained.

If men are to be reformed in prison,—or out of prison, for that matter,—the highest leverage that can be brought to play upon them is the recognition of their relations to God and the future. Education, as far as it is an unfolding process by which a man attains to a knowledge of his obligations and his limitations, is admirable, but not otherwise. As a standard of morals and as a sanction to the demands of the State, the divine law, in the nature of things, is a necessity of government everywhere, which cannot be dispensed with.

A Godless prison, except as a pandemonium of wickedness and

cruelty, is inconceivable ; and hence there is no example in history of any permanent progress in prison reform except under the influence of Christianity and its teachings.

Christianity, however, as an official department of prison administration, is of recent origin. Sixty years ago there was not a resident chaplain in any American prison. To-day there are but very few American prisons without a chaplain, and certainly there are none where some form of religious service is not considered essential upon the Sabbath day.

Religion, however, as a motive power in prison, ought not to be confined to the Sabbath day or to sermons by the chaplain. On the contrary, the best work of the chaplain is done outside of the pulpit, by daily contact with the prisoners ; and, in this work, he ought to have the co-operation of the prison officers and employés to an extent which shall make the whole atmosphere of the prison essentially religious. Example is more than precept ; and words are of little value, unless they are emphasized by daily deeds of kindness and charity in all the relations of prison life. Cant and formalism are worthless anywhere ; but, in prison, they are doubly wicked, for the prisoners have no escape to something better. Nevertheless, I am profoundly impressed with a conviction that religion in its purity is absolutely essential for any large success in the reformation of prisoners.

The chaplaincy of a prison, however, in its requirements for consecration and self-sacrifice, is as imperative in its demands as any missionary station in the heart of heathendom ; and no man can fill it acceptably, unless he is imbued to the utmost with the missionary spirit. There is no place in the world where a perfunctory official is more quickly detected and rejected than by prisoners, and there is no place on earth where true godliness is more highly appreciated.

In this work of securing proper religious influences in our prisons, Christian men and women outside ought to co-operate more largely than they do ; and there are but few forms of Christian effort which can be made productive of greater good.

Because organized communities, as cities, counties, and States, have taken control of our charitable and correctional institutions, it does not follow that Christian men and women have nothing further to do for the care of the afflicted or the erring. If we are to contribute nothing but taxes, and have them ground out by official machines and distributed by official almoners, and consider that we have done our whole duty in the premises, then away with them forever ; for they are worse than useless !



That such feeling exists is evident; and it must be corrected, if progress is to be made with power.

Money, doubtless, is a necessity; but personal service is a greater necessity.

*Prisoners' Aid Associations.*— Just now, perhaps, there is no form of organized Christian effort, in connection with prisoners, which can be made more effective, than in the formation and active operation of associations to aid and care for prisoners after their discharge.

In our prisons, as now constituted, the liberation of a prisoner at the expiration of his sentence is a matter of small moment to the prison management. He has served his term, and discharged his obligations to the State. The doors are opened; and, as he goes out, the books are closed with the doors, and the State ends all further interest in his welfare. The discharged prisoner, of course, goes where he is most welcome, and that, as a rule, is to his old haunts and among his old companions in crime; and "the last state of that man is worse than the first."

In most cases, this is the only thing he can do; for society will not give him a chance to do anything else. The brand of Cain is upon him, and every man's hand is against him.

If he had leprosy or small-pox or yellow fever or cholera, the hospitals would be open to him, and he would have a chance to live; but, as a discharged convict, all doors are barred against him. If, by falsehood or deceit, he obtains a living without a breach of the law, he has degraded his manhood, and must live in such constant dread of exposure that life is a burden.

Under such circumstances, is it surprising that statistics should show that sixty per cent. of discharged prisoners drift back again into lives of crime? In fact, is it not a substantial certainty that, unless discharged prisoners are enabled to support themselves by honest industry, they will assuredly make society support them?

In Great Britain, these facts were realized years ago, and they have found, to a large extent, a remedy in the organization of what are known as prisoners' aid associations; and they now number over sixty, and every prisoner in the kingdom knows, when he goes out, he can have a chance to live by honest industry, if he wants to. In fact, every prisoner, upon his discharge, is met by an agent of one of these associations, and invited to the opportunities of an honest life. The results of this kind of work are exceedingly valuable; and the post-penitentiary treatment of criminals is now considered, in England, indispensable in the work of reforming criminals.

If we are to keep pace with our British brethren, we must go and do likewise.

*Conclusion.*—There are many other steps of progress in prison reform of great value, if we had time to consider them,—such, for example, as the improved construction of prisons, the establishing of separate prisons for women, the professional training of prison officers, the unification of prison management, cumulative and probation sentences for minor offenders, and many matters of detail in the internal management of prisons. What we need, however, more than anything else just now, is a public sentiment so educated and aroused that it will no longer tolerate the fossilized iniquities which we have inherited from a paganized past. For progress in these directions, we have a right to look with hope to the younger States, where everything is new, and where they are at liberty to adopt that which is best without entailing additional expense. Here, in Minnesota, where a new prison is about to be constructed, you ought to see to it that the new era, and not the old, shall be recognized and adopted.

Perhaps one of the best things to do just now for the promotion of prison reform is to educate our members of Congress to the adoption of a prison system for the United States prisoners which shall be a model for the individual States in construction and management. There is a bill pending now in the House of Representatives, which has been framed under the auspices of the National Prison Association, and which, if adopted, will create a system of graded prisons, and afford an opportunity to adopt the best experience of the world in prison management. This bill is "House Bill No. 8211," and every friend of prison reform should see to it that his representative shall not remain in ignorance of its merits.

In the consideration of prison reform, which properly includes all methods for dealing with the criminal classes, it is very evident that we, as a nation, are not abreast of the best experience of the age. It is true we have here and there individual exceptions, but they are mere oases in a continental desert. So startling is the increase of crime that it is very evident that society itself is in jeopardy, unless something is done to arrest and reverse this order of growth.

According to the United States census tables, crime has more than doubled every ten years for half a century past; and still the tide is rising. It is evident that something must be done, or we die.

Elsewhere, the reformatory methods we have described have resulted in a reduction of crime; and, year by year, it goes down-

ward instead of upward, and common prudence indicates that we should adopt such methods.

It is to the apathy of the churches, more than to anything else, that we must ascribe the slowness of prison reform. Where Christianity fails in philanthropic work, everything fails; for outside of it there is none.

What we need more than anything else is a rebaptism of the churches with that divine afflatus which manifests itself in personal service for the good of others, and recognizes the crowning fact of philosophy, as well as of Christianity,—that *the only way to get good is by doing good*.

If Christians will remember the admonition of their Master, and will do the work indicated by him as their reasonable service, our jails will cease to be the schools of crime that they are, and our penitentiaries will go forward to a higher plane of usefulness and efficiency.

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## THE INTERNATIONAL PRISON CONGRESS AT ROME, ITALY.

BY REV. J. L. MILLIGAN.

This Congress was the third one of its kind which has assembled during the last fourteen years. Its sessions began on Nov. 16, 1885, and continued for eight days.

When Rev. E. C. Wines, D.D., LL.D., of New York, and Count Sollohub, of Russia, some sixteen years ago proposed to themselves, to this country, to Europe, and to the world, the idea of a gathering of experienced men from all the civilized countries, to consider criminal jurisprudence and matters pertaining to prison reform, it was thought by some to be an impossible task. However, clothed with a commission from his own country and with letters from resident foreign ambassadors, Dr. Wines set about the Herculean work.

His energy, intelligence, magnetism, and moral earnestness overcame the difficulties. In 1872, London witnessed the unparalleled accomplishment of the representatives of thirty-four nations engaged in debating criminal codes and the questions pertaining to the management of prisons and reformatories, the prevention of crime, and the rehabilitation of the fallen.

It was at this meeting that Dr. Mouat, of India, Sir Walter Crofton, of Irish prisons fame, Col. Du Cane, Cardinal Manning,

and the philanthropic Barwick Baker, of England, together with the world-renowned Miss Mary Carpenter, showed so well the progress and the needs of the British Empire in these matters. Also, many distinguished delegates from the various countries of continental Europe set before us the status of these matters of grave concern, thus creating a wide-spread spirit of inquiry, which accomplished much good.

It was at this London Congress that the Permanent International Penitentiary Commission was formed, which was to be the centre of action and authority for the future. It was made up of the following learned and experienced men, namely: Dr. Wines, United States; M. Beltrani-Scalia, Italy; Dr. Frey, Austria; Dr. Guillaume, Switzerland; M. Loyson, France; M. Pols, Holland; M. Stevens, Belgium; Baron von Holtzendorf, Germany; Count Sollohub, Russia; Hon. G. M. Hastings, England. The first meeting of this Permanent Commission was held in Brussels, at which time the arrangements were made for the Second International Penitentiary Congress, which was held in Stockholm in 1878, on the invitation of Oscar I., King of Norway and Sweden. Its sessions were opened by his Majesty in person. Here, as at London, it was pleasing to our American delegation to see the high place accorded to our new country among these ancient governments.

The labors of the preparation for, and the work necessarily devolving upon him at, the Second Congress, at Stockholm, told so severely upon the health of Dr. Wines that his place on the Permanent Prison Commission of the World was soon after made vacant by his death. Nor has his place as yet been filled.

The arrangements for the Third Congress were begun shortly after the meeting at Stockholm. The invitation from the Kingdom of Italy, through his Majesty King Humbert, to hold its sessions in the city of Rome, was most cordially accepted. By all who were interested, Rome was deemed a most fitting place to meet,—here where now King Humbert and his most gracious and beautiful Queen Margherita sway the sceptre of a constitutional monarchy over loving and loyal subjects whose prostrate condition needs their ever-willing help; here where the wise Senate and the earnest Chamber of Deputies of free, unified, progressive Italy meet to rebuild that which was broken by the wars and bondage of the past. In these active forces thus at work in the government there is much in harmony with the aims of the Congress.

Moreover, in no country is there a more intelligent, centralized

prison directorship than that which M. Beltrani-Scalia represents. As the inspector-general of all the prisons of the government, his labors are engrossing and exhausting; yet, with an enthusiasm, urbanity, and executive ability most charming, he pushed forward the multiplied work necessary for the success of the Congress. The secretaries of the various national or provincial committees who assisted him partook of the same characteristics. It is certainly no small achievement for any government officials to prepare for such a congress in the admirable manner that was found at their hands when the delegates reached Rome.

The building in which the sessions were held is a magnificent new structure, devoted to the exposition of paintings and sculpture. This Palace of the Fine Arts, occupying a whole square on the Via Nazionale, was most admirably adapted to the purposes and comforts of the meeting.

The library, collected by the Italian government, containing thousands of books and pamphlets relating to prisons and criminal jurisprudence in many languages, was the favorite resting-place of the delegates. All the rich stores of this library were for their free use. Here, also, were the best facilities for correspondence and current information.

There were about one hundred and seventy delegates present. A large number of these were official representatives of the countries of Europe, Asia, Africa, and some from North and South America. Some of the well-known voluntary prison societies of the world were represented.

From the United States there were Mr. Benjamin Stark, an official delegate of our government and also accredited from the State of Connecticut; Dr. Henry Coggeshall, accredited from Rhode Island; Mr. W. M. F. Round, official delegate of the United States and commissioner from the National Prison Association; and Rev. J. L. Milligan, also official delegate from the United States and commissioner from the National Prison Association.

Made up as it was of ministers of state, professors in law universities, judges in various courts, general directors and governors of prisons, senators, legislators, clergymen, diplomats, and some good women, who had been approved by their works, the Third International Penitentiary Congress was truly a distinguished body.

In the necessary absence of King Humbert from the opening meeting, M. Depretis, the President of the Ministerial Council, gave us a cordial welcome to Italy, and presided. His venerable mien and

his long life of loyalty and patriotic devotion to his country secure for him the utmost respect. No one, after the king, could have been chosen better to represent the dignity of the government and the importance of the occasion. His unaffected manner and wise words seemed to give the key-note to the work of the Congress. A telegram from the king was read, regretting his absence and expressing his best wishes for the success of the meeting.

M. Galkine-Wraskoi, of Russia, replied to the address of welcome, and accepted on behalf of the Congress the hospitality of the Kingdom of Italy, and expressed admiration and gratitude for the grand facilities afforded for its advantage. Baron Holtzendorf, as the Vice-President of the Permanent Commission, gave utterance to similar sentiments.

After this simple but impressive opening, the Congress was ready to take up its daily work. To do this most efficiently, it was divided into three sections; and a certain number of the questions to be discussed were assigned to each one of the sections.

Dr. M. S. Pols, Professor of Law in the University of Utrecht, Holland, was chosen president of the first section.

Prof. M. Goos, Director-General of the Prisons of Copenhagen, Denmark, presided over the second section.

Dr. E. de Jagemann, of the Ministerial Council of Baden, was chosen president of the third section.

Each section into which the Congress divided itself met in the morning hours of every day, in a room specially designated for this purpose in the Palace of Fine Arts.

The official language of the Congress and of the three sections was French. Official reporters were appointed for each section daily, who presented a *résumé* of the discussions and the conclusions reached to the general convention, which was held in the afternoon. An opportunity was then given for any and all the members of the Congress to express their views before the final vote was called. Thus there was the calm interlocutory treatment of the subjects discussed around the council table by the members of the special sections, and afterwards, oftentimes, a general discussion of the same questions in the Congress assembled.

At these daily afternoon meetings, many of the distinguished citizens of Rome were present. Ample provision was made for them in the unique hall of iron and glass annexed to the palace where these séances were held. This hall in itself was attractive. From the glass roof were suspended the flags of all nations. Around the walls



were arranged enlarged photographs or portraits of persons from many nations who had distinguished themselves during the centuries by their labors in penal, political, or moral science. The kindly face of Dr. Wines was placed near the great entrance door from the palace. Near by were the pictures of Edward Livingston, Elizabeth Fry, and Mary Carpenter.

At Rome was the first international display of prison products. Eight large rooms on the first floor of the palace were appropriated for this exposition. Four of these halls were filled with specimens of industries allowed in the Italian prisons. The remaining four were accorded to other nations. The descriptive catalogue of the products, giving but a single line to a specimen, is a publication of eighty pages, nearly as large as the page of the *Century* magazine. In wood could be seen work ranging from the clumsy wooden shoe of the peasant to the most finely finished furniture and inlaid work suited to royalty. There were iron and steel wrought into locks and keys and engines and tools and implements and ornaments; work in silver and gold, in leather, in paper, in wool, cotton, linen, and silk. Beautiful laces and embroidery were displayed. One unfortunate young girl had copied a portrait of Queen Margherita most exquisitely in needle-work. The agricultural prisons had a display of wines, oils, fruits, and grains. It made one sad to know that so much skilled labor was placed behind the bars for criminal action.

Another unique feature was the space devoted to the models of cells. Twenty-eight of these were built of full-size after the specifications sent from the various countries. It seemed like being actually in a little prison to walk around and meet the figure of a guard stationed at a cell door, and, glancing inside, to see the figures of convicts clothed in their national prison costume. These cells contained the actual provisions and furniture as found in the prisons of the countries they were to represent.

Massachusetts and Pennsylvania had each one furnished cell. England, France, Belgium, Norway, Russia, Baden, Bavaria, Switzerland, Hungary, and Spain, each had one; while Holland, Sweden, and Denmark had two cells each.

Pennsylvania contributed a large wooden model of one of its eastern penitentiaries. Massachusetts, Illinois, and Connecticut presented photographs and architectural drawings of some of their shops and prison buildings. However, the exposition from the United States was sadly deficient. One long corridor of the palace had its walls covered with sketches and plans, from many countries, of prisons built or in progress of construction.

It was close, hard work that the Congress did during the day. The evenings were graced and made doubly attractive by the opportunities afforded for social enjoyment. In this as in all regards, the Congress was treated with marked consideration.

The last and most charming of all the expressions of hospitality was the reception and the banquet accorded by the king and the queen in the Quirinal Palace. Here the delegates, grouped according to their nationalities, were presented individually to her Majesty Margherita, the most beautiful queen of Europe, and then to King Humbert.

It will not be expected, nor would it be possible to give a detailed statement of the many papers presented, covering as they did the whole range of penology. Nor would it be possible to give the range of the debates and the questions. For these, we will have to wait the official publications of the Proceedings. They will be published in French, and will be obtained through the various governments which were represented at the Congress.

These international meetings of wise, judicious, and good men have already accomplished much in moulding public opinion and giving direction toward the most enlightened legislation.

The next International Penitentiary Congress will meet in St. Petersburg.

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## UNITED STATES PRISONS AND PRISONERS.

BY GEN. ROELIFF BRINKERHOFF.

A year ago, at the National Conference of Charities and Correction at Washington City, D.C., the following resolution was adopted :—

*Resolved*, That a committee, consisting of Gen. R. Brinkerhoff, F. H. Wines, and G. S. Griffith, be appointed to take into consideration the subject of Federal Prisons and Prisoners, and report at the next Conference.

In response to this resolution, the committee beg leave to represent that, inasmuch as the subject of United States prisoners has been taken up by the National Prison Association, where it more properly belongs, and where it was fully presented at its annual congress in October last, it is not deemed advisable at this Conference to present an elaborate report, especially as the whole matter will again be under consideration by the National Prison Congress at its annual meeting in November, at Atlanta, Ga.

The facts of the case in brief are as follows : —

United States prisoners are such as are arrested for violations of United States laws, and are either serving out sentences after conviction or are awaiting trial.

According to the report of the Attorney-General, the total number of United States prisoners in confinement on the first day of July, 1885, was 1,984; and the total received during the year was 9,050. In addition to these there are, on an average, about 500 prisoners convicted of military offences, who are confined in the United States Military Prison at Leavenworth, Kan., so that the total number of United States prisoners during the year must have aggregated about 10,000, with a daily average of about 3,000.

Of these, about one-third are convicted of felonies, and are confined in the penitentiaries of twenty-three Northern States and six Territories. None are in the South. The other two-thirds are confined in three hundred and forty-eight jails, scattered through all the States and Territories.

Of those serving out sentences in penitentiaries, 9 were in California, 7 in Connecticut, 126 in Illinois, 47 in Indiana, 9 in Iowa, 8 in Kansas, 5 in Maine, 7 in Maryland, 3 in Massachusetts, 250 in Michigan, 10 in Minnesota, 8 in Missouri, 2 in Nevada, 21 in New Hampshire, 17 in New Jersey, 310 in New York, 11 in Oregon, 43 in Pennsylvania, 1 in Rhode Island, 6 in Vermont, 27 in Montana, 5 in Utah, 14 in Washington Territory, and 13 in Wyoming. Of the whole, over one-half are in four penitentiaries; namely, 117 in the Southern Illinois penitentiary, 250 in the Detroit House of Correction, 123 at Albany, N.Y., and 135 at Buffalo, N.Y.

The prisoners from the Southern States are distributed as follows: Alabama, Louisiana, Mississippi, Tennessee, Texas, and Eastern Missouri to the Southern Illinois penitentiary at Menard; Florida, Georgia, Maryland, North Carolina, Eastern Virginia, and the District of Columbia to Albany; and Arkansas and Kentucky to Detroit.

The prisoners from Montana and Nebraska are also sent to Detroit.

This is substantially all the information given in the report of the Attorney-General. There are many other things we ought to know, as, for example, age, nativity, crime committed, length of sentences, occupation, education, cost of keeping, kind of supervision by the government, etc.; but we must be content for the present with what we have.

From other sources, however, we know that in the main these pris-

oners are kept without charge to the government. In a few prisons, the government pays from fifty to seventy-five cents a day. As a rule, however, the prisoners are sent where their labor will pay for their keep.

These prisoners are supposed to receive, and possibly do receive, the same treatment and care that are given to other prisoners in the penitentiaries where they are confined.

The only supervision given by the government is an annual inspection by an officer of the Department of Justice. Beyond this, these prisoners, if not entirely out of mind and memory, are at least out of reach of any useful supervision of the General Government, and are consigned to the tender mercies of officials in whose appointment or removal it has no voice, and over whose conduct it has no control. This is especially hard upon prisoners from the South, who are far away from home and friends, in a climate to which they are not accustomed and under laws with which they are not familiar.

The prisoners convicted of minor offences or who are awaiting trial are for the most part in the jails of the judicial districts in which their crimes were committed. The cost of keeping them is certified monthly or quarterly by the United States marshals and district attorneys, and is settled by the Department of Justice at Washington; and that is about all that is known about them by the government. Until discharged, they remain in these jails, and have nothing to do but to amuse themselves the best they can, in association with other prisoners with whom they are confined; and we all know that, with half a dozen exceptions, every jail in the United States is a school of crime, where every conceivable form of wickedness is taught by skilled professors, and where every possible opportunity is afforded for pupils to graduate as expert scoundrels.

We get glimpses of these jails from some of the reports of United States marshals. The description of the jail at Fort Smith, Ark., in the Attorney-General's report for 1884, is a fair sample of the companionships and educational facilities of the average congregate jail:—

The marshal says: "The building is about sixty feet square, outside measurement, and is divided by a partition wall through the centre, making two cells. The bottoms of the cells are covered with flagstones, which are about two and one-half feet below the surface of the earth; length of cells, fifty-five feet; breadth, twenty-nine feet; height, about seven feet.

"There being but two cells of equal size, I am compelled to con-

fine all criminals and those only charged with misdemeanors together in the same cell, without regard to age, charge, or physical condition. The youth of tender years, often charged with only a misdemeanor, is confined for months with the condemned murderer and desperado. Besides this, we have no place to keep the sick and wounded separate from the wild, noisy, and unfeeling crowd around them." The number of pupils committed to this school of crime during the nine months ending June 30, 1884, was four hundred and fifty-four.

The United States jail in Utah, apparently, is even worse than that at Fort Smith; and the daily average of prisoners is about one-third larger, but the particulars are not so fully given. The prisoners all sleep in one room, 50x20 feet in size, and in bunks three tiers high, with two in a bunk.

These two jails, it should be remembered, are among the very few owned and directly operated by the General Government. The only additional prisons owned by the United States are the jail at Washington City, the military prison at Leavenworth, Kan., and the penitentiaries in the Territories of Idaho, Montana, Washington, and Wyoming. All of these, except the military prison at Leavenworth, are simply congregate jails, on the Arkansas and Utah pattern.

The military prison at Leavenworth is under the control of the War Office, and apparently is a well-organized and well-managed institution, and a credit to the government.

The jail at Washington City is also a good prison structure, and is fairly well conducted, although the separation of prisoners is not as fully enforced as it should be, and no provision is made for the employment of prisoners who are serving out sentences.

The Attorney-General's Department seems to be doing all that can be reasonably expected of it from the appropriations and appliances granted by Congress; but what is needed is the revolution and reconstruction of the entire system, and the government should provide for the care of its own prisoners, and assume the responsibility which properly belongs to it.

From this brief review of the facts of the case in regard to "Federal Prisons and Prisoners," it is very evident that the subject is one of grave importance, and demands careful consideration and legislative action. Congress, however, will do nothing until there is a public sentiment which shall manifest a definite demand; and, therefore, anything we can do to inform the public will be in the right direction.

Just what ought to be done, and the extent to which reforms

should be carried, are questions about which there is room for a difference of opinion. But that a beginning should be made by constructing at least one model penitentiary and one reformatory for prisoners convicted of felonies is a platform upon which all good citizens ought to be able to unite in demanding congressional action. When that is secured, experience will determine any additional action that may be needed.

In this demand, we shall also be in harmony with the recommendations of the Department at Washington.

Attorney-General Garland, in his report for 1885, says :—

The subject of United States prisoners and the mode of discipline which governs them have received careful attention of the Department. For several years, the question has been agitated as to the advisability of building a government penitentiary, where all persons convicted of United States offences should be confined. My predecessor, in his report to Congress, recommended that such a prison be built; and I am disposed to renew this recommendation, and do earnestly urge upon Congress the necessity of providing for an institution of this kind.

His reasons for this recommendation are given at length, and they are unanswerable. He also goes farther, and suggests the erection of jails for the detention of prisoners awaiting trial. Upon this point, he says :—

United States prisoners awaiting trial or sentence, and those undergoing short terms of imprisonment, are confined in the various county jails throughout the country. These prisoners are directly under the custody of the United States marshals. Efforts have been made, as far as possible, to secure the proper treatment of this class of persons; and economical arrangements have been entered into for their maintenance and medical treatment, by which the expense of their support has been reduced. It is almost unnecessary to state, however, that the average county jail is a poor place for the confinement of any one, much less the confinement of persons who have committed their first offence. The system of discipline existing in most of the jails is exceedingly lax: the prisoners mingle together, the hardened criminal with the first offender; and those who have taken their first step in crime, while here, learn the other steps which make them in the future, perhaps, hardened criminals.

I am of the opinion that the several States should take this matter, in hand, and improve the condition of these institutions. It may be well for Congress to consider the question of building United States jails at each place throughout the country where United States Court is held, and where, at some seasons of the year, a number of prisoners would be confined.



In these recommendations, your committee most heartily concur, and commend them to your attention as wise and timely.

We would also call attention to the fact that there is now pending before Congress a bill, prepared under the auspices of the National Prison Association, which, if adopted, will fully inaugurate the reforms desired.

The bill provides for "the appointment by the President of five persons,—citizens of the United States,—one of whom shall be an officer of the Department of Justice, as a commission, whose duty it shall be to determine upon the manner in which to provide accommodations for the care and discipline of persons convicted of felonies under the laws of the United States, and to procure plans and specifications for the construction of a government prison, with all necessary offices, workshops, and other appurtenances, and a reformatory, the total cost of the two not to exceed two million dollars; the penitentiary to be of sufficient capacity in all its parts and appointments to accommodate and employ one thousand convicts, and a reformatory for juvenile convicts and first offenders with a capacity not to exceed six hundred."

"The said commission shall also consider the whole subject of the care and discipline of prisoners convicted under United States laws, whether for felonies or minor offences, and shall also investigate the various methods for the government of prisons and reformatories, to the end that the best and most improved plans may be adopted in the government institutions; and they shall report their conclusions to the President for transmission to the next session of Congress for its consideration and action, together with such drafts of laws as they shall deem essential to carry into effect their recommendations."

This bill (House Bill 8211) was introduced by Hon. Darwin R. James, of New York, who takes an intelligent interest in its success; and it is now under consideration by the Committee upon Public Buildings, of which the Hon. Samuel Dibble is chairman, but will not be reported upon during the present session.

There is also another bill of value (House Bill 4815) now pending before Congress, which was introduced by Hon. A. S. Willis, of Kentucky, and is in the hands of the Committee upon Labor, of which the Hon. John J. O'Neill, of Missouri, is chairman. This bill provides that

It shall be the duty of the Bureau of Labor Statistics to obtain a record of all United States prisoners, both before and after sentence; and to collect, compile, and present to Congress in its annual report complete and practical statistics, showing where prisoners are confined, length of sentence, age, nativity, illiteracy, sanitary condition,

cost of support, and, so far as possible, the relation of convict to free labor. It shall also collect and arrange, as far as possible, tables setting forth the general criminal statistics of the several States of the United States, showing the system under which prisoners are employed and upon what kind of manufactures. It shall also be its duty to examine the accounts presented for the support of United States prisoners, and to visit and inspect the prisons, jails, and reformatories where United States prisoners are confined, and report the result of such investigations, with such recommendations as to the proper places of confinement, treatment, and labor of United States prisoners as the facts may warrant.

One great want in the investigation of the subject of United States prisoners, or of any other subject pertaining to the criminal classes, is reliable statistics; and, as this bill is intended to supply this want, its passage is much to be desired. It ought, perhaps, to be enlarged somewhat, and possibly it might be best to refer its execution to the Department of Justice; but it is in the right direction, and should receive approval by all friends of prison reform, and they should see to it also that their members of Congress are fully advised as to the merits of both these bills.

From the foregoing considerations, it is very evident that the subject of "Federal Prisons and Prisoners" is one of great importance, and that it ought to receive intelligent attention from the executive and law-making powers of the government, and is worthy of the best thought of the best men of the nation.

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## LABOR IN PRISONS AND REFORMATORIES.

BY Z. R. BROCKWAY.

The public discussion of the prison labor problem thus far has served to increase the general estimate of its importance, but has not yet properly covered the question. Legislators freely acknowledge their bewilderment about it. Narrow and false notions of the economic effects, mistaken sentimentalism, and political partisanship,—these together constitute the field in and around which the controversy is mostly waged. The real reason for prison labor at all, the true principle of its applications, and the conditions of any proper use of it do not seem to be clearly perceived. Employment is essential to the penitentiary system for criminals. Without employment, the system must be abandoned. When the prisoners of a penitentiary are left in idleness, the penitentiary proper no longer exists. It becomes a great jail instead. The true purpose of the penitentiary

system is expressed in the one word "protection,"—protection from fresh crimes by the same criminals; protection from their contaminating influence when released, as they must be at some time; and protection from any unnecessary burden of cost for their maintenance in prison. These three elements of protection cannot be divorced. To remove the criminal tendencies revolutionizes the released prisoner's relations to his social contact and to industry; to change from bad to good his influence upon his associates involves his reformation and right placing for self-support; and to rescue a criminal from the predatory to the productive class usually regulates his behavior in society, and, by restraining his wrong impulses, repressing their activity, tends to root them out. Idleness for prisoners operates to confirm their criminal characteristics,—contributing to crimes, intensifying their hurtful influence when released,—and unnecessarily increases the burden of their support. It would be better for society to release prisoners immediately upon their conviction than thus to treat and *then* release them. Prison labor, then, must be so applied as actually to prepare the prisoner in his mind, in his productive power, and to procure him a place in honest industry for which he was not prepared when committed to prison. This principle should be at the basis of any and all plans for prison industries; namely, the use of labor for reformatory results.

We need a better understanding of criminals before we can obtain the fullest support for this use of industries in prison. Say what you will of crimes as the product of circumstances; quote never so often, "But for the grace of God there goes John Bunyan"; believe, however confidently, that "there is a soft spot in every criminal's heart, if only we might find it,"—the fact nevertheless remains that criminals, as a class, are defective and dangerous because of the peculiar constitution of their minds, and are devoid of the common incentives to industry, to honesty, and to honor. They are, as a class, low bred. Squalor and vice have imbruted them, and their habitual attitude is opposition to and disregard of the salutary laws and usages of good society. They cannot reform at will. Indeed, they cannot, under usual motives, will to reform. Extraneous treatment is required, compulsory assistance, beginning with the physical renovation, forcing then a continuous current of healthful occupation, and holding them to honest conduct until naturally and easily they respond to the conditions that commonly influence the bulk of mankind to decent behavior.

Such training for such characters cannot be satisfactorily applied

out of custody. It must be had in prison, in reformatory prisons, in hospitals or asylums constructed and conducted for the cure of moral maladies. The period of legalized custody should not be definitely predetermined. The duration of it, the tension of it, and the nature of it should be left to the proper procurators, as such matters are now, by common consent and by law, left, for the insane and invalids, to alienists and physicians.

With complete custody and control, it is essential to occupy every waking moment with means that compel his industrial training, mental growth, and moral training. Work, school, and behavior, even when enforced upon the prisoner, constitute a unity of reformatory means inseparable, whose efficiency each and all depends on their skilful adjustment the one to the other, and wise application of all for the purpose intended. Industry, of equal importance with the school and moral training, is first in order, but must be differently applied from the system in vogue throughout the prisons of the present day. Better than idleness, possessing here and there a meritorious phase, these industries are, as a whole, fundamentally wrong. The prisoner's relation to the prison is that of a slave, justly so if society is to be benefited; for he has by his crime forfeited the liberty he abused, and maybe he himself is better off for comfortable living than when at liberty. But it is wrong, because his condition, however incurred, tends to confirm, if not to increase, that degradation which is the source of his crimes and a constant menace to society.

The first great change required is so to reorganize prison industries that the relation of prisoners to their subsistence shall be natural; that is to say, they shall have personal responsibility about it, being obliged voluntarily and honestly to earn it. For this purpose, diversified industries must be supplied, carried on both for instruction and production; the prisoner having what he earns and paying for what he gets, including his food, clothing, shelter, medical attendance, education, etc., unless he is incapable, when he is to be relegated to the dependent class, receiving only a pauper's proper fare. With such a change of industrial relations, his relations to the government of the prison and the State will be gradually improved. He will soon perceive the necessity of law and order for his own peace and prosperity. He will more readily conform, until, in place of opposition and disregard, he forms the habit of voluntary obedience and support of salutary rules and laws. From such a system of industry, prisoners are much more likely to go forth, after a time, not callous or

craven, but habituated to the care and courage only possible to those who achieve something desirable under difficulties overcome by their own will and energy. A few dollars, hard earned and sacrificingly saved for future needs, are far better for the prisoner on his release than any gratuity the State can bestow on him after his years of unrequited toil with punitive privations.

There is no probability that the prisoner's condition and relations can be much changed so long as the contract system of employment prevails. Reform it never so much, there will always be a mercenary obstacle to the best utilizing of industries for reformation. The employment of prisoners in slavery for profit to the State introduces a bad element; but the effect is still more pernicious if their slavish labor is for profit to a third party, the contractor. There are generous contractors, as deeply interested in saving lost men and in society's welfare as any other citizens,—men who would not knowingly do injustice to any man or class of men. It is no reflection upon such contractors to say that they do not engage to employ convicts by the day, hired of the State for manufacturing, as a missionary or benevolent enterprise. It is business, legitimate and honorable business, conducted for profit. This is well understood by the State as well as by the contractor at the date of the agreement. Indeed, whether written or not, it is a part of the contract; and the State is in honor bound to use all diligence to the end that the contractor may succeed. The State thus becomes the custodian and disciplinarian (not to use a stronger term) of its imprisoned criminals for another interest than the true one of our penitentiary system. The government of the criminals may be humane, benevolent, pious; but there is not, there cannot be, that singleness of aim required for the best work in preparing prisoners to become good citizens. It is as impossible for the State as for the individual to serve two masters. One or the other of them will be preferred. If it be the contractor, the State suffers. If it be the State, then the contractor suffers; and the State violates honorable obligations, and soon will have no contractors. It may be safely said that, so long as there is sufficient monetary advantage to induce contractors to come in and employ convicts by the day, there is thus supplied sufficient evidence that the object, the protection of society by the penitentiary treatment of offenders, is neglected or hindered.

The public-account system is claimed to be the true ideal, but is not likely to be soon generally adopted, because of the large amount of capital required to be invested by the State, because of the com-

mercial and political risks involved, and also because of the inexperience and reluctance of prison managers to assume the work and the responsibility of it.

The piece-price plan, really belonging to the public-account system, or at least a compromise between that system and the contract system, is probably most practicable. It possesses the advantages of both and the disadvantages of neither. Under it, the State need invest little or nothing at all; the prisoners are entirely under the control of the prison officials without conflicting interests; the most minute gradations of work or pay can be easily made. The change of prisoners relating to industry, previously mentioned herein, is facilitated by it; and this plan accustoms the prisoners while in confinement to ordinary conditions of citizen workers in factories outside. There is not, probably, any perceptible difference of competition, whether prisoners are employed on productive work by one system or another. If, by their labor, articles of utility are supplied to consumers at full prices, nobody can complain; and, if supplied at reduced rates, everybody ought to be glad. No craft or craftsman can properly oppose a private interest to a public benefit; and is it not a public benefit when, by prison labor or otherwise, the uniform cost of useful articles is reduced? There are instances, no doubt, where citizens are unable to carry on a business with profit, after prisoners were put to work at it, and others where, by machinery and enterprise, one free citizen attracts the trade another previously had, so that the latter is obliged to go out of business or adjust it to the new conditions. If the public are benefited by the employment of prisoners at productive work, is there any good reason why the individual or the few whose business is affected by it should not adjust their business as they constantly and uncomplainingly now adjust it to trade fluctuations and competitions from other sources? It does not need to be argued that it is a public benefit to reduce the monetary cost of maintaining prisoners by utilizing their own labor. Few will deny that it is a public benefit, if the labor of prisoners can be made to contribute to an increase of general production, thereby reducing the cost of necessary articles; and a most important public benefit is certainly derived when convict employment, by its reformatory agency, becomes a means of public security against crimes. If it is a public benefit, then the State has undoubted legal and social or moral authority to employ prisoners at productive work, at any work and by any system that best promotes the public welfare; and, since there are no rights without corresponding duties, the State is under obligation so to employ them.



Objection is made that the concentration of convict labor upon a single industry does, in effect, unnecessarily discriminate against the citizens engaged in that business ; and it is alleged that it would be better if the burden of convict-labor competition could be more generally and more equally distributed.

The effect upon the industries of the State must be substantially the same, whether the prisons absorb any particular industry, and the citizens engaged in it distribute themselves among the others, or whether the prison labor be so distributed. Indeed, if only the economic view is to be determined, it might be wiser for the State at once to appropriate to itself one, and only one, industry, settling down on it for convict employment. But, since the main purpose is, by the work prisoners perform while imprisoned, to prepare them for rehabilitation, their employment at diversified industries is required, and fortunately may be so arranged and conducted as effectually to dispose of any just complaint of competition. The prisoners composing the prison population of a State were, previous to their imprisonment, either engaged in some work by which they earned an honest living, or they subsisted by unlawfully appropriating the property of others, or else they were idlers, living by charity. It is, unquestionably, preferred that everybody shall live by his own honest exertions. And had the prisoners refrained from crimes, remaining at liberty, actively producing for their own support, no outcry about it would have been heard ; or could they by some regenerating agency be instantaneously reformed and returned to honest employment as citizens, there could be no complaint. And it follows — does it not ? — that to employ prisoners in prisons so that their individual relation to the general industries shall be substantially what it would have been except for their crimes, what it would be if they were reformed and released, disarms objectors. Such a system also best determines the public cost of maintaining prisoners by limiting it to certain necessary general expenses,— the prisoners, such of them as are capable, supporting themselves,— and at the same time, as has been previously suggested, is precisely what is demanded for the use of prison labor as a reformatory means.

It is feasible to introduce and establish the proposed prison labor system in the prisons of any State. It will serve to quell hostile agitation, and will surely lead up to a rational and reformed prison system ; for it is the root of the whole matter. The difficulties of the prison labor problem at present inhere in its consideration apart from the other departments of prison organization and government. Its

difficulties will disappear when the whole question of prison discipline is thoroughly understood; for then, and then only, will the true relation of prison industries to the purposes of imprisonment be appreciated.

The state of the question throughout the country is most favorable for a beginning. The contract system is abolished by law in New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, and California; and Michigan would have been added to the list but for the veto of the bill passed by the legislature, because no substitute was then provided. In California, the amended constitution prohibits the contract system; but the public-account and the piece-price systems are in use, the latter being most favored and there classed as a phase of the former, while in New York it is considered as belonging to the contract system. Illinois is to vote this fall for or against a constitutional provision prohibiting the contract system, and the canvass against it is already espoused by Mr. Wines and other penologists in that State. New Jersey and Ohio have adopted the piece-price plan by law. Massachusetts, in one prison at least, practises it by common consent; while Pennsylvania is supposed to be operating the prisons of that State on the public-account plan.

In New York, the public-account system is authorized, with an appropriation this year of nearly a million and a half to Superintendent Baker, as capital for the three State prisons alone; and a salaried commission, with an appropriation of \$15,000, is created to report a substitute by February of next year, the piece-price system being tentatively authorized if the governor shall in each case approve, which it is quite well understood he will not do. The commission is styled "The Prison Labor Reform Commission," and is composed of three members, namely: George Blair, of New York City, the labor agitator; Mr. Bookstaver, a prominent Democrat of Dunkirk; and Mr. Enos Barnes, of Wellsville, the editor of an active Republican newspaper there. The scope of the commission, as well as the title, is a hopeful indication that in New York this important question is to be properly considered and wise legislation recommended. The commission is "authorized and directed to investigate and report, either by bill or otherwise, upon each of the following subjects":—

(1) The various systems of employing convicts, and especially the reformatory feature, which involves the convicts' best interest, and the self-sustaining principle of maintaining convicts without cost to the State.

(2) The introduction of a system of employing convicts in the prisons, penitentiaries, and reformatories, other than the contract system, as it has heretofore obtained in this State, and upon what articles of manufacture prison labor can best be employed with a view of diminishing to the minimum the competition which now exists between prison and free labor.

(3) What experiments should be made in the employment of convicts upon any new industry, and in which of the prisons, penitentiaries, or reformatories, the same should be tested, and under whose direction.

(4) The best method by which can be established a graded system in the commitment, custody, and employment of all convicts in the State, with a view of classifying and separating the depraved and vicious from those possessing a type of character susceptible of higher moral improvement.

(5) What abuses, if any, obtain in the management and discipline of the convicts in the several prisons, penitentiaries, and reformatory of this State, and what change, modification, or improvement should be adopted in this behalf.

To dispose of the prison labor agitation by employing prisoners in prisons substantially as they would or should have been employed if they were not in prisons necessitates their industrial classification and training. We need to know what is each prisoner's proper place in the world's work,—not so much his preferences as his natural capabilities and probable future situation in society. After some usual separations of prisoners, such as males from females, children and youth from older criminals, professional or experienced criminals from first offenders, etc., the finer classifications, with or without separation, the gradations in separate establishments, are best made in this test of natural and possible industrial adaptation,—pursuing not this alone, but certainly no proper classification can be made without it. From one cause or another, or from a combination of causes, prisoners, when they are at liberty, have occupied no permanent legitimate place in honorable work; and, as the rule, they are, on admission to prison, quite unfitted for such work under ordinary incentives. The reformation the State should seek is their correction in this regard; and whoever will take up the problem of reforming prisoners from this view-point and with this object will find the problem practical enough and difficult, perhaps, but he will see it clearer and rid of its nonsense. To reform prisoners in this State, sense requires that there shall be discovered and devel-

oped the prisoner's disposition to live by honest work. There must be demonstrated to the prisoner himself, as to his tutors, his ability easily and sufficiently to earn ; and, also, he must have a fair chance to work, and receive for it suitable rewards. So to prepare prisoners for their release and place them should be the purpose of prison administration for every prisoner from the moment of his admission to prison ; and, whatever else may be required, no prisoner should be wholly liberated until there exists a reasonable probability that he will so live in peaceful industry and keep the laws. After all, there will, no doubt, remain a remnant of incorrigibles numerous enough, for whom penal labor may be the best form of it ; but always, for every one of them, the opportunity should be open for advancement to the higher and reformatory industries. If there is to be any legislative restriction at all upon the employment of convicts, it might more appropriately be that the labor of incorrigible convicts shall not compete ; but there can be no valid objection from any quarter against the use of all industries in any manner for the protection of society through the reclamation of such as may be reclaimed.

The reformatory use of labor is sneered at, as indeed the whole subject of reforming criminals is held in contempt by many, and by prison officers who have not emerged from the discouragement incident to superstitious notions and immatured methods with which many of us began our work. It is affirmed by hard-headed people that the penitentiary treatment of criminals cannot perceptibly diminish crimes ; that the source of crimes inheres in civilization itself, — the more civilization, the more crimes ; and that it is absurd to expect crime to be minimized by treating the comparatively few criminals committed to prisons. Reformations cited are said to be rather restorations than reformations. But may not apparent incorrigibility be properly attributed as well to our defective prison system and our own faint-heartedness as to remoter reasons ? No rational human being should be surrendered to the incorrigible class until the resources of ingenuity are exhausted and superhuman help is withheld. Who can foretell what penology will yet become, what new power over mind the moral forces wisely applied shall yet achieve ? Ruskin sees an ounce of mud and slime of overtrodden path, in the outskirts of a manufacturing town, by rest and sun rays reformed into white earth, then congealed by fire into finest porcelain, — not only white and clear, but hard, gathering out of light its blue rays only, becoming then a sapphire. The separate sand also

becomes clear and hard, arranging in infinitely parallel lines, reflecting the blue, green, purple, and red rays in opal. The soot comes out clear at last, reflecting all the rays of the sun at once,—a very diamond. The water, too, of this ounce of mud forms a dewdrop, then crystallizes into a star. So that, from the ounce of neglected slime we had, there is now, by rest and work with nature, a sapphire, an opal, and a diamond set in the midst of a star of snow.

Robert Collyer says: "I tossed a little dried-up root into a dark corner once, when I was doing a bit of gardening. You are of no use, I said, and might as well rot. But the little thing knew better than that. I had given it up, but then it fell back on the only god it knew of,—our blessed mother, Nature. It ran rootlets into the filth by May, and began to sprout. Then June came along, and said, 'You must flower.' But there was no flowering in that dark hole. So what should my brave little thing do but creep out of the hole on a long stalk, find the sun, and unfold a blossom blue as heaven and beautiful, and then turn up its cup to drink the dew. And so it was that one day, when I went to hunt up an old rake or something in the hole, there was my blossom—no, not mine, but God's blossom—bowing to me in the sweet south wind, and seeming to say, Good morrow; and I lifted the bonny bluebell, and kissed it tenderly, on my knees. I had never heard such a sermon as my bluebell preached on this June day."

But leave not *all* to Nature: there is room for human effort. If we work with mother Nature, it shall come to pass that, for crimes and their cure, society shall reach a perfection of development not possible without them. The alloy of character has its uses, and may be utilized for good, as the craftsmen sometimes use alloy of metals for the finer shaping. Mr. Browning strikingly portrays this truth in the following lines:—

"That trick is, the artificer melts up wax  
With honey, so to speak; he mingles gold  
With gold's alloy, and, duly tempering both,  
Effects a manageable mass, then works.  
But his work ended, once the thing a ring,  
Oh, there's repristination! just a spirt  
Of the proper fiery acid o'er its face,  
And forth the alloy unfastened flies in flame;  
While self-sufficient now, the shape remains,  
The rondure brave, the liliated loveliness,  
*Gold as it was, is, and shall be evermore;*  
*Prime nature with an added artistry,*  
No carat lost, and you have gained a ring."

Finally, it should be said that the sentiments of this paper are not new, if they are untried. Sir Thomas More wrote three hundred and fifty years ago, declaring "the end of all punishment to be reformatory, nothing else but the destruction of vice and the saving of men." Mr. Green says he advises so using and ordering criminals that they cannot choose but be good; and, what harm soever they did before, the residue of their lives to make amends for the same. Above all, he argues that, to be remedial, punishment must be wrought out by labor and hope, so that none is hopeless or in despair to recover again his former state of freedom, by giving good tokens and likelihood of himself that he will ever after that live a true and honest man.



## VIII.

### Preventive Work.

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#### REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON PREVENTIVE WORK AMONG CHILDREN.

BY MRS. VIRGINIA T. SMITH, CHAIRMAN.

There is no vital work in the history of Christian charities which has been in the past so persistently overlooked, or from the neglect of which society has suffered so many and terrible disasters, as preventive work among children. Myriads of the desolations which have befallen the family, the community, and the State, have been wrought by the neglect of the children,—that neglect resulting from the ignorance, indifference, or cowardice of those whose willing and earnest work it should have been to establish in them, in earliest years, the elements of a strong, true character. As we have much reason, also, to fear that future calamities will flow from the same sources, every individual working to secure the best influences and opportunities for the children should first know from what perils and distresses they are yet to be shielded or delivered, and, when such succor or deliverance is effected, the best methods of inculcating principle, and consolidating character.

The importance of the proper solution of these questions must be apparent, when it is already admitted that the little child is the fundamental factor in the universe; that kings and potentates, judges and strong men, pass away, and “little crying things in cradles” rise up to take their places. Thus, we who are witnessing the physical development of the coming generation, with a knowledge of the needs and lamentable disadvantages of so many of them, must earnestly work to secure to them all the opportunities essential to the development of the best character.

If these questions are not fully considered, and true methods discovered for the nurture and direction of the heart and mind, then

the life of an unfortunate child is more to be deplored than its premature death.

Our desire is that each child may be so advantageously situated that its best inheritances may be nourished and strengthened, its evil tendencies repressed and overcome, and the atmosphere in which it lives one of such unselfishness, gentleness, and Christian love as to be a constant inspiration toward all that is good.

If personal association of this sort, in greater or less degree, cannot be the habit of life with the child, then it must grow up in blindness and ignorance, knowing little or nothing of that law of Christian love which is at the bottom of all usefulness as well as happiness in life.

That we may not fail to understand what conditions we may ameliorate, or from what surroundings unfortunate children are yet to be delivered, we must take into separate and special account their present conditions, which we classify in a general way as follows:—

1. Children in almshouses.
2. Children being reared as paupers by their parents.
3. Children of drunkards or prisoners.
4. All children in vicious surroundings.

In order to acquaint ourselves with the amount of work yet to be done in their deliverance, and for a better understanding of the later work of prevention and education, and at the same time to be able to report to you all that is cheering in work already accomplished, we have endeavored to procure information with regard to the provisions of the law on this subject and the practical application of it in each of our sister States.

During the last few months, letters of careful inquiry have been sent by this committee to every State and Territory in the Union, regarding the condition of these classes of children and the provisions existing for their rescue and their future care. We included in our inquiry all children who have become public charges, but who have not been found guilty of crime.

These letters, to which minute and detailed returns were earnestly requested, have brought answers from twenty-five of the States, informing us that in those States there is provision by law for children who have become public charges. Of these twenty-five, ten report satisfactory legal provision for innocent children by the establishment of "homes," "institutions," or asylums, to which they may be removed from almshouses, from inhumane parents or guardians, and from immoral surroundings. In a few of these States permitting

this special care of such children, the law has been in operation from two to four years, and in Massachusetts seven years. Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Michigan, Minnesota, and Wisconsin have State "homes"; while Ohio, Indiana, and Connecticut have temporary homes in the different counties of the State. The law of Pennsylvania permits the establishment of county homes, and two or more counties may unite in their maintenance.

In a few of the States which have not made special provision for such children, the belief that almshouse life is demoralizing has led them to provide for them in an apartment separated from the adult paupers. Several States have two and even three reformatories, but absolutely no provision for the merely neglected or outcast class, who do not need the restraint and discipline which are the rule of reformatories.

In States where the law regarding this limited provision for children is not mandatory, but permissive, many children are exposed to the same evils which still prevail where no law exists, and do not therefore receive the benefit of either public or private homes.

The expense of caring for children, whether in asylums, institutions, "homes," or almshouses, is, throughout the Union, met largely by counties. State institutions receive State appropriations, and towns provide for their dependent children as is found necessary. County officials report that the people are coming to see that sending children into "homes" is the truest economy for the State.

Dotted all over New England, the Middle and the near Western States, as well as in some parts of the South, are the orphan asylums, which for many years have faithfully kept in sight the needs of friendless and neglected orphan children, and which are supported by public appropriations and private charities.

In the South, it is reported that but a scanty proportion of neglected children become public charges. Returns from the same source indicate that as yet public opinion is not awakened to the importance of preventive measures.

California supports many of its children until fourteen in the almshouses of the State. A recent visit of a member of your committee to that of San Francisco discovered between thirty and forty children dressed in the pauper uniform and freely mingling with the insane and criminal inmates. An industrial school for incorrigible boys and a Magdalen asylum for girls are established, and are already full to overflowing. Older boys and girls are found at police stations, at the jails, and in the State prison at Saint Quentin. It is

an exceptional circumstance for a child to be placed in a home, except by the "Boys' and Girls' Aid Society," established within a few years on that coast, and already vigorously pushing a most useful work.

The sparsely populated country towns of California render the placing of children a much more difficult matter than in States which are blessed with fruitful farms and Christian householders. The homes outside of the cities are widely scattered and often entirely unsuitable for homes for children. More than one-half of the reporting States make no provision for dependent and neglected children except such as is furnished by almshouses and an occasional orphan asylum, and fully two-thirds of the States of the Union make absolutely no provision for them.

Thus, we are forced to report to the Conference of 1886 the fact that the great majority of the simply dependent children of the United States are yet in State and county poorhouses with adult paupers, or, outside of them, are being reared in vice and squalor.

One can scarcely censure the new States and Territories for this wretched condition of things, while the old Eastern and Middle States have not yet adopted the wisest and most economic methods of caring for the children. Many of the new States, unfamiliar with the care of this class of dependants, regard with alarm the thousands who are pouring in upon them from the lower stratum of the Old World, and consequently need and are entitled to such information and advice as we, from our deeply interested study of the subject, are able to give them.

Evidences also abound that satisfactory provision for such children is not yet made in several States where thoughtful people are alive to the necessity of earnest work among them. Nebraska writes, "Children are returned to the streets for the want of suitable provision." Colorado reports, "The State is so unprepared to care for children that we cannot hold them when rescued." Illinois writes, "Children remain in almshouses with paupers, because of no provision elsewhere." Kentucky reports, "No provision made for children rescued; they simply return to former surroundings." Washington, D.C., reports, "Girls of any age are not admitted to the Correctional School in the District of Columbia, and are either sent to jail or turned loose to pursue their criminal avocations."

At the workhouse in the District of Columbia, in which are convicts of all ages, is a constantly recruited company of boys dressed in the criminal uniform of the institution. These boys are arrested for

truancy, quarrelling, profanity, and petit larceny, and are sentenced to the workhouse for ninety days, more or less,—never more,—after which they are discharged to go their way, without restriction or supervision.

*Classification.*—This committee is glad to report that in the States where dependent children are, to a greater or less extent, provided for, there is a growing recognition of the need of a classification of them. In States where inadequate provision is made, however, no classification seems possible; and orphan asylums are expected to receive children who are only fit for the reformatories, and reformatories must in turn receive those who are suffering for the sweet influences of family life; while the feeble-minded and idiotic are left to sink still lower in mental stagnation and decay.

Mr. Letchworth's able presentation of the importance of classification has attracted much attention, and is having its effect. For children simply dependent and neglected to be placed, because the law permits it, in reform schools, which were established and should be maintained expressly for juvenile offenders, appears a piece of cruel injustice; and, when homes and institutions are established in which to receive the innocent children, preparatory to their being placed in families, we protest against their being sent to the reformatory institutions.

In the report of 1884 of the Royal Commissioners on Reformatory Schools, Lord Norton protests against this system, saying:—

If these two schools are to be maintained, it is essential that each should be kept for its distinctive purpose. Moral mischief must ensue from a fictitious distinction of such institutions. The line should be plainly drawn for public recognition. But, in practice, the two have got to a great extent confused. Magistrates send to either indiscriminately, and further legislation has caused the two descriptions to overlap.

He recommends a better classification, so that industrial schools will cease to confuse vagrancy with crime and to stigmatize mere outcast children as juvenile offenders.

To the same effect is the following paragraph from a strong friend of the children. In speaking of providing separate industrial training for children in danger of falling into, but who do not belong to, the criminal class,—such as are possibly unsuited to family care,—he says:—

They may be simply wayward, restless, daring spirits, but from which class come some of our best men. They are now sent to the

reform schools,—the same institutions to which criminal children are committed,—and thus have an ineffaceable stigma placed upon their name. They may be of honest lineage; but a blot is thus placed upon the family escutcheon, which I think so great a wrong as to bring it within the category of legal crimes.

The *Boarding-out System* for pauper children has not, we think, as yet received the attention it deserves. It has been carried on between fifteen and twenty years in England, and is now making moderate progress here. Children for whom homes cannot readily be found until they are older can, by this system, be taken from almshouses, or from parents who neglect and abuse them, and placed out to board in humble families. The same society which carefully selects the home undertakes to visit and look after the children. This system, although regarded with disfavor by some, who believe that there is somewhere a home for every homeless child, has, nevertheless, proved an invaluable method in many instances, inasmuch as the families receiving them feel that they could take them in no other way; but, in the course of a few months or years, coming to love them deeply, they gladly retain them without remuneration, and often legally adopt them. Numerous instances of this kind could be cited in proof, both of the saving to the town, county, or State, and of the immeasurable benefit to the children.

In my own experience in the city mission work of Hartford, seven-tenths of the scores of children so provided have been adopted by the families receiving them. Families treat them in every way as their own, the children soon forgetting all other associations. For a class of children who, on the general placing-out plan, would scarcely be selected by families, this method of treatment proves a special blessing. Naturally unloved and unloving, strangers to sympathy and tender interest, human feelings are awakened in their hearts by these early years of family life in homes which supply exactly the elements from the want of which they have suffered, and in which they often develop wonderfully, both in faculties and affections.

Massachusetts reports that the direct placing in families of infants, even sickly ones, has been attended with wonderful success; and that under new State laws other children have been boarded in families, with equally good results. During the year 1884, one hundred and thirty-five children under three years, and ninety-nine over three and usually under eight, were boarded in families by that State. They also assert it to be a great saving to the State, reporting that



the children become at an early age incorporated into the real life of a community, are frequently adopted by those persons who have had charge of them, and are capable of self-support at a much earlier age than if trained in institutions.

In view of the facts and of our convictions concerning the needs of preventive work among children, we offer to this Conference the following respectful suggestions : —

First, that it shall be our aim, through laws made to that effect, to remove, when practicable, to proper surroundings and to the benefit of family homes, all neglected and outcast children.

Second, that asylums, temporary homes, and institutions may be simply a means by which we shall accomplish this object.

Third, that the boarding-out system for babies and young children may be an additional means for the promotion of this object.

Fourth, that a thorough system of investigation and visitation be inaugurated as necessary to the success of the work.

Fifth, that we secure, if possible, a thorough system of classification, which will protect innocent children from the dangers of being committed to correctional institutions.

We also earnestly insist that the work, so thoroughly begun in some localities, ought not to stop within its present limits,—the workers content with their own successful labors in their own States. These workers should go out to their sister States that have not yet realized their needs, with a force that shall overcome their apathy and awaken an earnest interest that will not rest till the work is done.

The charitable work which makes its conferences interesting, instructive, and therefore important, depends for its success upon the underlying principle of our efforts. If actuated and energized by a vital Christian love, they must succeed. Constantly increasing light will be given us, so that we shall be enabled not only to adopt the wisest course of general action, but so discriminatingly to apply the remedies at hand in each particular case as to meet the real and the finest needs of each individual nature. If we can learn to care for the children of one State, according to the thought of Him who said, "Of such is the kingdom of heaven," surely, we may hope ultimately to educate and bless all God's little ones, from one end of our beloved country to the other.

It is with pleasure that we announce an address entitled "The Children of the State," from the pen of Hon. William P. Letchworth, President of the New York State Board of Charities, and ex-President of this Conference, whose earnest efforts, and able discus-

sions and reports on the various phases of charitable work, have made a deep impression on former Conferences, and have been an inspiration to quiet workers throughout the country.

The work of former Conferences in papers and discussions with regard to placing children in family homes will be continued this year by Mrs. Anne B. Richardson, of Lowell, Mass., whose paper on "Massachusetts Institutions: Supplementary Work in the Care of Dependent and Delinquent Children," embodies her own experience upon this subject. Mrs. Richardson brings to her subject a familiarity with institutions, with children, and with the homes into which they have gone, which can only follow from years of interested supervision of the work. The experience out of which her paper has grown will entitle it to the unbiassed consideration of those to whom it is addressed.

At too late a moment to bring the matter into our report, a letter was received from a member of this Preventive Committee, containing a suggestion, which, notwithstanding it is of a legislative character, should be given to the consideration of this Conference. It concerns the "Age of Consent"; and the writer suggests that this Conference shall appoint committees to frame bills for introduction into the various State legislatures, advancing the "age of consent" to at least fifteen years of age, where such is not now the law.

## MASSACHUSETTS INSTITUTIONS:

### SUPPLEMENTARY WORK IN THE CARE OF DEPENDENT AND DELINQUENT CHILDREN.

BY ANNE B. RICHARDSON.

Among thinking men and women and those who have looked into the results of institution life for the class of dependent and delinquent children, there has been growing a feeling—partly because of failure to do all that was hoped from them, and partly because of more enlightenment and a growing belief that unnatural conditions can never be the best ones—that institutions so much desired, and established at so much expense, are, after all, a mistake. As means to an end, they can scarcely be considered a mistake; and, with proper limitations, they are a necessity,—necessary preliminary stations on the way to self-restoration and self-support. It is, perhaps, not to be regretted that the trend of enlightened modern thought is toward disfavor of institutions, because this state of opin-

ion will have its effect in a tendency to caution in commitments to institutions and to a reluctance to commit to them at all, if other means shall be available and shall prove efficient in accomplishing the work to be done. With all the safeguards that now surround the youthful offender, either boy or girl, after complaint has been made, before and during trial, it is hardly possible in the State of Massachusetts to commit to an institution, unless it is manifestly the best disposition to be made of the child.

There are, however, still many cases when temporary detention of longer or shorter duration is a necessity. The obvious work of the institution is to put a stop to a career of wrong, and to substitute a life where obedience and industry are the laws for one where license and laziness were the ruling powers. This accomplished, the institution can do little more, and may do much harm. Restraint is necessary, and under certain conditions strengthens and fortifies; too long continued, and under other conditions, weakens and degenerates. The surgeon puts on the plaster cast to permit a healing and knitting process without injurious displacements by action of the muscles; but, his object accomplished, he will remove it at once, to promote healthful development. So the girl or boy, morally strengthened to stand alone by the restraint of the institution, should not be longer restrained, but should be allowed a natural development, impossible in a life of routine, dependence, and monotony, such as all institutions must of necessity afford. Mr. Ruskin says of himself in his *Præterita*, after enumerating many of the consequences of his dependence upon parents and home too long: "Lastly and chief of my evils, my judgment of right and wrong and powers of independent action were left entirely undeveloped, because the bridle and blinkers were never taken off me. Children should have their times of being off duty, like soldiers; and, when once the obedience is certain, they should very early be put for periods of practice in complete command of themselves, set on the bare-backed horse of their own wills, and left to break them by their own strength." And he adds, "The ceaseless authority exercised over my youth left me, when cast out at last into the world, unable for some time to do more than drift with its vortices." And what the highly, carefully nurtured childhood of Mr. Ruskin did for him, an institution does in another way for boy or girl left too long within its walls to be cared for, to be clothed, to be fed, to be warmed, and wholly supported at the State's expense. This life, so continued, begets a helplessness that years outside will

not overcome, a dependence that looks for all worldly needs to be supplied without effort, and a limpness of moral and physical stamina instead of a healthy development of mind and body, produced by the self-reliance and independence of one who earns a livelihood in the natural conditions of family life, where even the irritations, annoyances, and seeming hindrances are so many real helps in the end. These irritations and annoyances serve to develop and strengthen the character, as exercise of the muscles strengthens and develops them; and, as necessary as the institution is, for those who can have no restraining influence outside, for those who, even with the supervision of agent and visitor, cannot be trusted in a lawless home amid evil companions, it should be used only so long as is required to teach the lessons of obedience, of cleanliness and industry, and to instil into the mind and heart the lessons of morality, pure and simple,—lessons in honesty, in purity, in right doing. While this instruction is given by example and precept, in season and out of season, of course the ordinary school training should be going on,—daily lessons in the essentials of life in the stations they may be expected to occupy. Faithful instruction in the simple requisites for such lives is imperative, and nothing more than this.

All institution life must have routine, but should have no more than is actually necessary. In large ones, it is impossible to avoid routine perhaps at all; but, in smaller ones and where there is a family system, it is possible to relieve much of the monotony of routine, and the beneficial effects are soon seen whenever it can be departed from with the preservation of discipline. Even routine in the matter of food it is desirable to avoid, and all other literal sameness which wearies and stultifies. Every opportunity to vary work by change of kind should be used. An occasional and unexpected pleasure, an excursion, ever so simple, if only a half-hour's walk in a pleasant day, or *any* little variety in the hours of work or school, will sometimes clear the atmosphere and brighten skies in which clouds were ominously gathering. A new interest, a new object, healthfully tends toward the desired end.

Work, engrossing and continued, with the recesses necessary for rest and recreation, is the one important desideratum of institution life; occupation, from the rising in the morning till the going to bed at night, even the change at the hour of recreation, from the work of the shop, the kitchen, or the sewing-room, being only a change from one occupation to another, which may be one of choice, but must still be *occupation*,—occupation so that the thoughts may

find new food, may not turn *in* upon the old life, but always and ever *out* upon the new.

And now, as to the kind of work, I believe any to be better than a mechanical industry, which is soon mechanically performed. Work of the farm for both boys and girls; work of the kitchen, the laundry, and the house for both. Nor would I have the so-called "modern conveniences" enter into the appliances for housework to any considerable extent. I would have both girls and boys so trained to work, under such conditions and with such utensils, that, when finding places in the humble farm-houses of New England or in their own homes, where still smaller available means await them, there will be no discontent. In these homes, they will not find steam-heated sleeping rooms, with hot and cold water at hand, or the latest improvements in cooking utensils. They will not find the water conveyed to and from set-tubs in well-appointed laundries; but, in all probability, they will have to carry it from an outside pump, perhaps to draw it from a well in the primitive way of our forefathers. It is also quite possible they will have to break a thin coat of ice in the morning before they can take the bath it is to be hoped they have been taught is a proper way to begin the day. There are institutions where the life of the inmates is of such a kind as to cause such experiences as these on going out to be considered unmitigated hardships; but those who have had similar ones in many a well-to-do country family can testify that there is no real hardship in such a life, and that, even if there were, such hardships are of small importance in comparison with its general wholesomeness. Accepting the conditions of such a life cheerfully, as they will, if no foolish system of pampering, through a mistaken notion of kindness, is allowed, they will be strong enough for struggles outside, if need be; and then, if what we are pleased to call better fortune comes, they will be more likely to appreciate such fortune and to enjoy it more thoroughly, because they have earned the right to it.

The tendency in the past has been toward some extravagance in institutions, in buildings, in living, and in externals. It is to be hoped these false ideas are giving place to the common-sense views of what is only really essential; and, while I would emphasize the imperativeness of the essentials,—meaning everything directly tending to the reform of the criminal, to the elevation of the neglected and untrained,—I would lay equal stress on the wrong of expenditure for non-essentials. Given, arrangements conducive to health, to the best method of discipline and instruction, no matter how simple,

how plain is everything else! while it should always be remembered (and here I quote from a foreign report) that "there is a duty in not placing individuals who have incurred the penalty of the law in positions of greater material comfort than those who by honest lives have incurred no such penalty," and, it may well be added, than it may be expected they will enjoy when once released from the care of the State. But, were it not a question of expense and the conscientious disbursement of the State's funds, no real benefit results, and often much harm is the consequence of other than the simplest surroundings. Success, or the want of it, must, after all, depend on the character and spirit of those who undertake the work of prevention and reform in institutions. Expenditure for show, for ease and luxury, will not promote this work; and, while it may not hinder those who have the high qualities of head and heart required, it is certain that a lack of such expenditure will be no drawback to those who are earnest and faithful in the service undertaken. No machine will take the place of personal exertion and personal influence. No labor-saving invention for teaching *en masse* can be substituted for the patient, self-denying, continued effort with the individual. That institution, or department of an institution, must want entire success where large numbers prevent the exercise of this personal influence upon the individual, and the study of each individual so as to find the one "vulnerable spot," the one impressionable part of the nature through which to reach the head or heart. For such labors there must be time and opportunity. To reach desired results, the numbers must not be large or the officers few. Money must not be spared in this direction. Far better the rudest exteriors, the simplest manner of living, with intelligence and high-mindedness in superintendents and officers, than the finest structures to "do the State credit" without them. The boys and girls in these institutions, restored to the State as good citizens, self-supporting and self-respecting, will "do the State a credit," for which it will not be slow to return thanks by renewed appropriations for the continued care of its unfortunate and its "poor."

Acknowledging the necessity of institutions, but deprecating commitments to them, when the object can be obtained without, and the continuance in them longer than is necessary, they have a value in the work of prevention and reform which may be summed up in few words. It is to be found in the refuge temporarily afforded "neglected" children from parental incapacity and parental abuse, almost always resulting in delinquency. It is found in the oppor-



tunity they offer for a complete stop in a criminal career begun, in the necessity while detained in them of obedience, of cleanliness, and thus of forming habits of cleanliness and industry, and the opportunity for instruction in the various kinds of work, both domestic and out-door work, with such other work as there may chance to be; opportunity for thorough elementary instruction of the school-room; and last, though of prime importance, opportunity for the simple moral and religious teaching which enjoins responsibility to a Higher Power, veracity, honest dealing, purity, self-control, and all practices conducing to good, pure, and useful lives. In order that such results may follow, there must be wise administration of the best systems, but no such blind adherence to any system as shall preclude personal treatment of the individual, entitled to his or her entire identity, to his or her individual proclivities, in every harmless way. Every movement should be made, so far as is possible (with the inevitable limitations of the institution), toward self-sustaining power and usefulness outside; in short, a constant guarding against the enervating consequences of dependence and restraint, and by a setting free from it as soon as may be, by taking off, as Mr. Ruskin recommends, its "bridle and blinkers."

When the institution shall have done what it could do, then a home should be sought in family life, where the guardian care of the State shall still be over the ward with power enough to protect, and with authority enough in some degree to control. With the investigation of homes authorized by the system of the Department of In-door Poor of Massachusetts, it is possible to obtain good homes, or, if mistakes are made, to remedy such mistakes by change without much delay. Installed in these homes and subject to the "visitation" of the volunteer auxiliary visitors appointed by the head of the Department of In-door Poor, or of the paid agent of that department, the success, or lack of success, of the training of the institution is soon made apparent. Not always has the boy or girl been an apt pupil, and the training in a family will sometimes do for such a one what the institution could never accomplish; nor does this prove that he or she should at once have entered upon family life, without the intervention of the institution. Though the institution may not have successfully trained, it has made the life in the family possible. How, may easily be conceived.

Family life is the natural life, and, few will deny, desirable for all under reasonably good conditions; but a mistaken opinion has prevailed to some extent as to how good these conditions must be, in

order to make the home eligible. There are those who insist on surroundings of material comfort and some ownership of property as actually essential to the proper placing of the wards of the State. It is true, so far as supplying necessary food, necessary warmth, and necessary clothing, that these conditions should exist to a certain degree. Beyond this there are no essentials but well-ordered lives in homes of cleanliness and purity, with kindness, patience, and a good judgment, which will see the propriety and wisdom of co-operating with the visitor for the good of the ward. No one would wish to deny the advantages of the best home possible to one of these unfortunate children, when such offer; but that they are not to be placed in any but those abundantly supplied with creature comforts and appliances to make labor easy is a false notion, and one to be done away with. Miss Carpenter said, "A real good home is infinitely better than any school (meaning institution) for the education of girls. Even a second or a third-rate one is preferable." And this is true of boys, though perhaps not with equal emphasis.

In this supplemental care in families of State wards, those children for whom board is paid are, as a rule, placed in humble homes; and, after the testimony of those best informed on the subject, information obtained by actual observation and knowledge of their real condition, no better surroundings could be desired,—homes in which, in striking contrast to any institutional life, they "learn to bear and forbear, to seek help and to give it, to suffer and enjoy, and out of many failures to act, as out of many falls they learn to walk." These words, quoted from an English report on home training, are as true of our children as of those of foreign countries; and the "cottage homes" among the hills of New England are as respectable and desirable in every way as those of England and Scotland, where the very best results have been reached.

So with all "dependent," "neglected," "delinquent," "criminal" children, the institution, if it *must* be, the family as soon as it *can* be. Everything which tends to separate a child or youth from other children and youth, puts them on a different footing, and makes them different from others, should be avoided. As soon as may be, let them be restored to such conditions as are the birthright of all,—the conditions of family life. Many instances might be given from my own experience, as well as from all auxiliary visitors, of girls thus restored, through the united agencies of the institution and the family, from the lowest degradation to respectability and usefulness. In such cases, while the institution has been a necessity, the whole

work could not have been done without the supplemental care in the family and under the watchfulness of the auxiliary visitor. Others may be noticed where the preliminary discipline has not been necessary: the family life, with the supervision of the visitor, has been sufficient; and there are and always will be failures with both. But, while commitments to the Industrial School at Lancaster have been steadily increasing since 1879, and the number in the school is not larger now than when there were fewer commitments, because of the constant placing in family life, the percentage of successes is increasing, as it is known to be, the system of State care in institutions, as exhibited in this one, must be approved; and what is true of this school is true in greater or less degree of others.

Victor Hugo, in his incomparable novel, *Les Misérables*, says, "All the crimes of man begin with the vagrancy of childhood"; and Cardinal Manning has just said, in an article in the *Contemporary Review*, that "the Christianity and the civilization of a people may both be measured by its treatment of childhood." Here we have the extremes of thought uniting in a common sentiment of the importance of the subject under consideration. The words of both teach their own lesson, and need no comment.

While we must deprecate our shortcomings and failures, we rejoice that institutions for reformation succeeded those for punishment; that movements toward more natural conditions than those of institutions are in favor wherever it is possible to take advantage of them; and that it has been proved that prevention is better than reformation, as that is better than punishment. And we will hope that the better early protection by society of all its dependent children shall sooner or later, in some measure, preclude the necessity of all three.

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## CHILDREN OF THE STATE.

BY HON. WILLIAM P. LETCHWORTH.

From dim attics and damp cellars in poverty-stricken sections of populous towns, from ruinous dwellings in the suburbs of great cities, from cheerless homes about the mines and sooty mills, from innumerable haunts of misery throughout the land, there comes a cry from helpless children,—children who, subjected to want, disease, neglect, and the dangerous influences that insidiously poison and corrupt the human soul, are so environed as to command our deepest, tenderest sympathies. From these wretched abodes and this demoralizing

atmosphere mainly come the unprotected and destitute, as also the intractable and offending youth, whom we not improperly designate as the CHILDREN OF THE STATE.

Born in homes of comfort, and surrounded by the protecting influences of the church and good society, we are slow to appreciate the immense difference between our favored fate and that of the child whose first breath is drawn in an atmosphere of moral impurity and in the midst of privation; who, instead of being strengthened by a pure and holy love, has its receptive nature perverted by the debasing influences of selfishness, ignorance, and vice. Considering the bias given to youthful character by unhappy environment, it becomes us to approach our subject imbued with the gentle spirit of charity, the more humble for our superior advantages, and with a hand held out in kindness rather than with the rod of punishment threateningly raised.

The desire to protect the weak and helpless is one of the noblest attributes of our nature, and in the progress of civilization is fast becoming a prevailing sentiment, taking the form of an obligation recognized by the State as well as by the individual. The security afforded by the parental relation is necessary to the well-being and proper development of the child; and when, from any cause, it is left without protection, the State, reflecting the magnanimity of the citizen, stands *in loco parentis*, and assumes the obligations of the parent. This responsibility may be exercised directly, or it may be delegated to benevolent societies or to individuals. In any case, the broad agis of the State is extended over the weak and helpless little one; and it has a powerful protector.

The whole number of children in the United States under sixteen years of age is given as 20,043,659; but we are unable to determine what proportion of these are dependent or delinquent, nor can we definitely decide how far the different States discharge their duty toward dependent and offending youth. According to the census of 1880, there were in the United States 48,928 blind persons, of whom 2,242 were in educational institutions other than day schools, and 33,878 deaf-mutes, of whom 5,393 were in similar institutions. The New England States, having a population of 4,341 blind persons, had only one public institution for their instruction. This contained ninety-six inmates, and receives pupils from other States. New Hampshire and Vermont had no institutions for deaf-mutes. There were no schools for the blind nor for deaf-mutes in New Jersey, Delaware, Florida, or Nevada. The total number of idiots in the United

States was 76,895. Of these, 2,429 were in training schools for the feeble-minded. Just what percentage of these classes should receive public instruction cannot be estimated. It would seem, however, that the proportion under institutional instruction is small.

The number of children in foundling asylums, orphan asylums, and other establishments for homeless and destitute children, as estimated by Mr. F. H. Wines, is shown in the following table, as also the number in institutions of the character of juvenile reformatories, as given in the last United States census:—

STATES.	POPULATION.	No. of Children in institutions of the character of Foundling Asylums, Orphanages, and Children's Homes.	No. of Children in institutions of the character of Juvenile Reformatories.
Alabama, . . . . .	1,262,505	226	.....
Arkansas, . . . . .	802,525	.....	.....
California, . . . . .	864,694	2,509	100
Colorado, . . . . .	194,327	.....	.....
Connecticut, . . . . .	622,700	466	429
Delaware, . . . . .	146,608	118	.....
Florida, . . . . .	269,493	4	.....
Georgia, . . . . .	1,542,180	461	.....
Illinois, . . . . .	3,077,871	1,453	217
Indiana, . . . . .	1,978,301	915	463
Iowa, . . . . .	1,624,615	190	257
Kansas, . . . . .	996,006	55	.....
Kentucky, . . . . .	1,648,600	950	223
Louisiana, . . . . .	939,946	1,991	144
Maine, . . . . .	648,936	198	116
Maryland, . . . . .	934,943	1,653	759
Massachusetts, . . . . .	1,783,085	2,463	726
Michigan, . . . . .	1,638,937	747	314
Minnesota, . . . . .	780,773	126	112
Mississippi, . . . . .	1,131,597	149	.....
Missouri, . . . . .	2,168,380	1,643	247
Nebraska, . . . . .	452,402	.....	.....
Nevada, . . . . .	62,266	187	.....
New Hampshire, . . . . .	346,991	144	111
New Jersey, . . . . .	1,131,116	1,040	438
New York, . . . . .	5,082,871	18,624	3,714
North Carolina, . . . . .	1,399,750	162	.....
Ohio, . . . . .	3,198,062	4,149	1,051
Oregon, . . . . .	174,768	69	.....
Pennsylvania, . . . . .	4,282,891	7,339	814
Rhode Island, . . . . .	276,531	319	180
South Carolina, . . . . .	995,577	397	.....
Tennessee, . . . . .	1,542,359	362	12
Texas, . . . . .	1,591,749	206	8
Vermont, . . . . .	332,286	176	149
Virginia, . . . . .	1,512,565	354	.....
West Virginia, . . . . .	618,457	69	.....
Wisconsin, . . . . .	1,315,497	656	523
Total, . . . . .	49,371,340	50,579	11,107

It does not follow that there is the most juvenile depravity in those States having the largest number of children and young persons in reformatory institutions, nor do the statistics show that in such States the most comprehensive system of reform exists; neither does the number of dependent children in institutions show the degree of destitution and pauperism in the several States: but the magnitude of the work carried on by benevolent organizations under the sanction of the State and by the State itself for these unfortunate and delinquent classes is thus brought into bold relief.

It would be impossible in the time allotted this important subject to treat it as fully as it deserves. I shall therefore content myself by presenting a few thoughts that seem to me to be worthy of careful consideration. The class receiving our attention may be separated into five general divisions:—

- (a) Young infants, or those generally designated as foundlings.
- (b) Children homeless or destitute through poverty, orphanage, or other causes.
- (c) Blind, and deaf and dumb.
- (d) Idiotic and weak-minded.
- (e) Truants, vagrants, disorderly and criminal children designated under the general term of juvenile delinquents.

#### YOUNG INFANTS.

Class (a) forms a subject of deep interest, from the largeness of its numbers and the fearful mortality prevailing under institutional care in some countries, but which is gradually lessening by the improved methods of later years. The revolving boxes for the reception of abandoned infants, and of which there were at one time in France as many as 256 at the doors in as many different institutions, are no longer legalized; and, in this country, the custom of receiving foundlings without asking any questions respecting parentage is, as far as I am aware, no longer practised. On the contrary, illegitimacy is a statutory offence; and the obligations of parentage are usually enforced. Public authorities, however, cannot efficiently deal with this subject, without the watchful co-operation of disinterested benevolent agencies, and without a strong public opinion demanding social purity.

In caring for this class, the large almshouses, even under good administration and separate departmental care, have not been successful, except in the matter of economy. It has been found that, under organized private benevolence, results could be achieved that



were not possible under the public system. Some years ago, in one of our large municipalities, its commissioners of the poor attempted to board out nursing infants. The mortality was so alarming that the experiment was quickly abandoned. At the same time, a private charitable organization made a similar experiment comparatively successful. In the latter case, a watchful and frequent medical inspection was supplemented by the visitation of an unpaid committee to the house where the infant was nursed. Under a private system, the interest taken by benevolent ladies in unfortunate mothers coming under their notice is frequently the means of preventing abandonment, and saving both mother and child. In some rural districts, where the poorhouse affairs are under efficient administration, considerable numbers of young infants are legally adopted into good families through the agency of the superintendents of the poor; and, as the motive for taking infants under such circumstances must, from the nature of the case, be disinterested, highly satisfactory results are thus reached.

It seems justifiable that still more stringent laws should be enacted to lessen illegitimacy, especially directed against the crime of unlawful paternity. I say crime, for such in time it will come to be regarded. Next to the awful responsibility of taking life is that of bringing it into existence; and the responsibility is indeed of so grave a character that public opinion should require that it is not evaded by either parent, and weighty penalties should be inflicted when it is ignored. There is a humiliating sense of weakness in a society that holds in honor and equality one who does not recognize his own offspring, and leaves to others the burden of its education, training, and support.

#### CHILDREN HOMELESS AND DESTITUTE.

In respect to class (*b*), a difference of opinion exists as to whether they should be placed in families by adoption, indenture, or verbal agreement at once upon becoming dependent, or whether they should be permanently placed in asylums. On one hand, it is asserted that the simple routine of the asylum does not give sufficient variety of mental or manual employment for proper development; and that the children thus become institutionized, and graduate inefficient, lacking confidence in themselves to cope with the world in a struggle for a livelihood. On the other hand, it is as confidently held that, for lack of preparatory training, the children are not accepted in the most desirable homes, and consequently too frequently drift away

into the vagrant and criminal classes. Extreme views in either direction I hold to be erroneous.

It seems evident that the family is the natural place for the true development of the child, especially when it is received as a member of the family, and allowed to participate in its industrial, social, and religious life, having its faculties stimulated and its ingenuity taxed by unexpected emergencies, its sympathies awakened by home-life troubles and trials, and its affections deepened through kindness and reciprocal confidence. But homes affording these opportunities, where real safeguards exist, are not always easily found; and when found, if the little applicant is ragged and dirty, ignorant of all decorum and profane in speech, he is not readily admitted, and some preparatory care and training are necessary to make him eligible to a desirable home. The asylum should be so organized as to effect this, and then the child should be given out. Many children do not need this preparation, and can be placed in the family at once.

These institutions for children are generally managed by benevolent ladies who give largely of their time and means. The child, upon entering the asylum, is at once the object of sympathetic interest, which, to a greater or less degree, extends to a protecting and helpful influence through life. All possible means are brought into requisition to improve and develop the little one's character. When ready for the family, great care is taken in making the selection where the proper moral influences will surround it and where it will have reasonable advantages of education. Visitation and inquiry after its welfare follow; and, in a rightly constituted asylum, records of its history are made through succeeding years. These I have found exceedingly interesting.

On one occasion, when, without previous notice, I was inspecting an asylum, in looking over the journal of its personal histories, I came upon the record of three children — a brother and two sisters — who had been placed in charge of the institution by order of the court. One parent was a criminal, the other licentious: both were notoriously dissipated. The boy and the girls had been placed in good families in different parts of the country. After a time, the parents demanded their children, claiming that they were able to support them. This demand was refused, and no information respecting their whereabouts granted; but the assurance was given that they were doing well. The father and mother were told that, when the managers were convinced that the children would not be dishonored by parental association, then, but not till then, could

they be permitted to see them. After I had finished reading the history, the lady secretary, who was showing me the books, turned and introduced an elderly, cleanly dressed, happy-looking couple seated in the office. They were the parents, just returned from the first visit which they had been permitted to make their children, then settled in homes of their own. In referring to the dates, I found that many long years had elapsed since these persons had been brought within the redeeming influences of this society; but all were saved, and a bond of Christian sympathy united parents and children.

However well-intentioned and faithful may be the efforts of a public official, he has not the same experience in the work as ladies connected with asylums. Critically responsible to the tax-payer, he is not so liberal in his expenditure for an outfit for the child, nor do the multiplied duties of his position permit his devoting the necessary time to this important work; and frequent changes in office render it impracticable long to continue visitation of these wards.

But the tendency of all asylums is to retain their children too long. We have examples of institutions that were established under the name of temporary homes, for the sole purpose of effecting a rapid transition from a condition of dependence to family life, which, in a few years, lapsed into inactivity in placing out, and eventually became permanent homes for children. Among the temptations to over-retention is a pride in numbers. After much drilling, the children become proficient in their exercises, and there is a reluctance to be continually breaking up the band that makes the asylum inmates, as a whole, appear attractive; and there are all the while growing personal attachments between the children and those connected with the asylum, which it is hard to sunder. Thus it sometimes happens, that, when the best family homes are open and waiting, the managers resist the attempts to place out their wards. Again, when the payment by municipalities or counties for the child's maintenance is sufficient to meet the entire cost of support, or, as is sometimes the case, afford a small profit, there is a pecuniary inducement to retain children.

There is, however, a class of girls that find their way into the orphan asylums, who, while not feeble-minded, are, nevertheless, so weak in character as to require constant guidance; and it is therefore better they should be retained in an institution until they reach maturity. In some of the asylums, after passing through a course of advanced industrial training, they graduate into the world under the protecting influences of the social organizations that are fostered by sisterhoods engaged in the asylum work.

The result of retaining children so long within the institution is, that the asylums in some of the municipalities have greatly expanded, and their numbers increased to an extent that has caused complaint from tax-payers, as also from the benevolent who contribute to their support. Another serious consequence is that of overcrowding, which, in some of the larger institutions, has resulted in the prevalence of ophthalmia to an alarming extent. Thus there is danger of this otherwise excellent system being crushed by its own weight. It is but just to state, however, that, in very many of the asylums, the population changes upon an average once a year, some of the children being placed out very soon after admission. Where there are so many dependent children needing the very best care and help that can be secured for them, we must see that none are deprived of the benefits of asylum training because of over-retention. It would seem better that ten children should enjoy the privileges of the asylum for one year each than that one child should remain during the period of ten years. Notwithstanding the dangers referred to, in my opinion, as children become dependent, the best course is to place them immediately in charge of benevolent societies organized for their care and protection, and at the same time to bring greater activity into the placing-out branch of asylum work. This activity could be promoted in localities where the institutions are largely supported by appropriations from municipalities and counties, by public authorities offering a moderate premium for every dependent child provided, within a given period, with a good home.

During recent years there has been engrafted upon the American system of caring for dependent children the English and Scotch plan of boarding-out, as it is termed. It has been put in operation on a small scale in Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, and in the vicinity of New York City. When abroad a few years since, I took some pains to examine the methods recommended by Miss Joanna M. Hill, a leading spirit in this work; also those pursued in Scotland under the supervision of Mr. John Skelton, Secretary of the Poor-Law Board, who is an enthusiastic advocate of the system. I also visited a considerable number of families, both in England and Scotland, in which children were boarded, including those under the supervision of the benevolent Rev. W. P. Trevelyan, at Stony Brook, and Miss Preusser, at Windermere. The number boarded out in England Dec. 31, 1884, was 1,043. These are under the care of committees sanctioned by the Local Government Board. In Scotland, the work is in charge of parochial boards; and the children are frequently

visited by inspectors and committees appointed for the purpose. The number of pauper children boarded in families in Scotland on the 14th of May, 1885, was 4,963, of whom 1,932 were with relatives, 3,031 with strangers. With rare exceptions, I found the children suitably placed, almost invariably in the families of poor cottagers, to whom the payment for board formed a needful part of their means of living. The cottages were generally tidily kept, and those in charge temperate and industrious. Some of the children were with widows or persons in poor health. Included in the stipulations of care was the promise that the child should spend a stated length of time in school. After reaching a self-supporting age, it is removed, or permitted to remain without payment of board. An attachment not infrequently grows up between the care-taker and the child, resulting in the acceptance of the latter alternative. The unpaid committees engaged in this work had discharged their duties in a careful and satisfactory manner. Altogether, the examination made a very favorable impression upon my mind.

But the circumstances attending dependency there and here are very different. Great Britain has not the extended system for placing children in families through orphan asylums and other benevolent agencies, nor the opportunities of placing them out without remuneration for support, that exists in this country. Social distinctions and customs, and the wider difference between the poor and the well-to-do, stand in the way. English people are surprised to learn that destitute children, especially girls, who in England are usually trained simply for servants, are here frequently adopted or indentured into prosperous families, and have all the educational aid and social privileges of the sons and daughters of their guardians, and this, too, without pecuniary compensation. Of 1,211 children sent out in 1884 from the pauper schools of the metropolitan unions and parishes, 567 were girls, all but twenty-two of whom went into domestic service.

The pauper or dependent children of England are mainly in departments of the large workhouses (alms-houses). Of late years, a commendable course has been pursued in erecting in the country groups of cottages for the accommodation of this class, thus separating them more completely from workhouse associations. The best illustration I saw of this plan was the Marston Green Cottage Homes, about six miles from Birmingham, designed to accommodate pauper children of that large manufacturing city. The group of buildings, pleasantly situated in the midst of highly improved

grounds guarded by a porter's lodge at the entrance, comprised an administration building, a school-house, also used for religious services, an infirmary, and fourteen two-story tasteful brick cottages, each accommodating about thirty children. Each of the seven cottages for girls had its house-mother, and each of the remaining seven for boys its house father and mother. Nevertheless, it was still a pauper establishment under public official direction, and not controlled by organized private benevolence, as are our orphan asylums. Even in this attractive and well-conducted institution, I could not but think the children would be better off in the families of cottagers. As to those in the juvenile departments of the large workhouses there can be no doubt that they would be infinitely better circumstanced if boarded out. Not having an opportunity to place children in desirable families, there appears to be no better way in Great Britain than the boarding-out plan; but, in this country, the doors of so many sympathetic, prosperous people are open to them, it is believed that, with properly directed effort, there could be placed in families for years to come, and without charge, through the medium of orphan asylums and other agencies, all healthy and intelligent children coming upon the public for support.

So long as boys and girls are boarded out by superintendents or overseers of the poor and their maintenance paid for, they are recognized as paupers, and classed as such among their associates, to the injury of their self-respect and ambition; and they are not, therefore, likely to rise as rapidly as otherwise in the social scale. But the great danger in adopting the English boarding-out system in this country would be that it would eventually break down our whole voluntary system of receiving children into families, and prove an incalculable misfortune,—creating an enormous pecuniary burden to the public, resulting disadvantageously to the children, and setting aside the moral benefits to the family in its benevolent sacrifice of caring for a helpless little one. When the pay method is fairly in operation, the unpaid and benevolent system will collapse; for, when it becomes known in any locality that the public authorities are paying for permanent board of pauper children under private care, it is not to be expected that persons will be willing to oblige the same authorities by taking children for nothing. The benevolent feature of the work being ignored, it would become merely a business transaction. Even in cases where the family interest would be promoted by receiving a child free, pay would be demanded. Again, under our political system, there would be a constant temptation



placed before public officials to do their part of the work in a way to derive some benefit from the patronage connected therewith. At present, the plan of permanently boarding out has not been widely accepted in the United States; and it is to be hoped that, notwithstanding the worthiness and good intent of those leading the movement, it will not become general.

Another danger of its adoption in this country will be seen, when we reflect that, if successful, it will supersede almost entirely the necessity for orphan asylums or children's homes, and the public will lose the generous contributions now made to these charities, estimated to amount during the year 1885, in New York State alone, to about \$750,000. The public will also lose the benefit resulting from the labors of a large force of benevolent workers who serve without any compensation whatever. I estimate that in the same State there are upwards of two thousand persons voluntarily engaged in child-saving work, a considerable proportion of whom devote their time, in whole or in part, to this laudable service.

#### THE BLIND, AND THE DEAF AND DUMB.

From the statistics we have respecting class (c), it is safe to infer, as already intimated, that further provision should be made for their instruction, notwithstanding the increase in the number of educational and training schools established for them during recent years. So far as we have made provision, however, I am led to conclude, after careful examination, that in buildings, management, and general arrangement for the care and instruction of this class, our institutions not only compare favorably with those of Europe, but reflect credit upon our country.

The question has been much discussed of late years as to the desirability of establishing, under State direction, asylums for the dependent blind, into which, with others, those graduated from the schools might be received and cared for, instead of sending them back to the community from whence they came. It would appear that the work of the schools should be to prepare the blind for usefulness and self-support; and care should be taken that this work is not neutralized by tempting them into an easy life of respectable dependence in an asylum, where the active stimulants of industry and business are superseded by the monotony of institution routine, and where they are deprived of the helpful sympathy of the seeing. The project of establishing a *State* asylum for the adult blind having been several times presented to the New York State Legislature, it

was finally referred to the State Board of Charities, which reported upon it adversely.\*

#### THE IDIOTIC AND WEAK-MINDED.

So recent as 1848, the necessity of institutional care, special instruction and training for the idiotic, class (*d*), was first recognized by the State in this country. In that year, the Massachusetts Legislature made an appropriation for founding the Massachusetts Institution for Feeble-minded Youth, having been inspired to this action by that distinguished philanthropist, Dr. S. G. Howe. New York State followed Massachusetts in 1851, by founding the idiot school at Syracuse, so long and ably conducted by the lamented Dr. H. B. Wilbur. Pennsylvania began in 1853 the work now carried on in the excellent institution at Elwyn, under Dr. Isaac N. Kerlin; and Ohio founded in 1857 the successful work directed by Dr. Doren, at Columbus. Provision for this class has since been made by the States of Connecticut, Kentucky, Illinois, Iowa, Minnesota, Indiana, Kansas, California, and Nebraska. Five States have authorized expenditures for the care and instruction of their feeble-minded in the institutions of other commonwealths. The remaining twenty States, at a recent date, had adopted no educational system for the idiotic; and that of some of those named is far from adequate.

While the work of instructing the teachable of this class requires great patience and perseverance, the results are, nevertheless, very satisfactory. The instances are rare in which they are not improved. In all cases, they are much happier, while it is safe to say that at least twenty-five per cent. are made capable of self-support under suitable direction. Therefore, aside from humane considerations, it is evidently wise economy to give the feeble-minded thorough training; and it is manifestly the duty of these conferences to influence the States that have not already done so to make provision for them, and also to encourage those States that have entered upon the work to foster and extend it. But the helping hand of the State should not be withdrawn after school age has passed. It should extend, in needful cases, to the care of such as are incapable of protecting themselves. The custodial institution for feeble-minded women at Newark, N.Y., the inmates of which were collected from the various poorhouses of the State, and there placed under care to guard against the possibility of the reproduction of offspring enfeebled like themselves, has proved so great a saving to the State of New York

\* Those interested in this subject will find the views of the Board as set forth in its report Jan. 1, 1884, Senate Document No. 6.

that the legislature has recently increased its capacity so as to accommodate two hundred inmates.

#### JUVENILE DELINQUENTS.

In considering juvenile delinquency under class (e), we come to the more difficult part of our subject. While conceding at the outset that there are many excellences in our system of dealing with juvenile delinquents, and that we have many admirable institutions for their treatment, I strongly believe that, with the present intelligence shown in management, under a different system, it would be possible to attain still better results. I therefore venture to point out what I deem to be some existing defects, and also to hazard the presentation of a plan which is the outgrowth of close study of the views of specialists in reformatory work in different countries, and of extended personal observation.

It has long been painfully evident to me that there was a lack of discrimination in sending young persons to reformatories. We find in the same establishment the truant from school; the homeless child, committed as a vagrant; the disobedient and wayward, committed as disorderly; the petty thief; and the felon. Generally, some classification is attempted in the institution, either by age or by character; but this does not effect the end sought. The different classes meet at religious services, at entertainments, and on other occasions, and soon become known to each other. It matters little what name is given to the institution,—whether house of refuge, industrial school, reform school,—or if the name is changed occasionally. Receiving felons, it soon becomes known as a criminal institution; and the stigma of crime is affixed to the name of all who are committed to it. The character of the institution is formed from its most hardened class. The busy world does not ask of the graduate for what offence he was committed. It is sufficient to know that he is a "house-of-refuge boy"; and he goes out into the world with this ugly brand upon him, which he soon finds must be hidden before he can hope to rise. Thus, a great wrong is inflicted upon the innocent,—the greater because of their helplessness,—a wrong that should call forth a protest from every generous heart. Who among us, looking with pride at his family escutcheon, and cherishing reverently the names of an honored ancestry, would not hazard his life to defend an inheritance so dear? Take home the thought that one of us, through the poverty or death of honest parents, might have been forced into association with felons and an

unjust official record made against us,—a blot that must rest upon the name of succeeding generations. Hardened criminal youth should be separately treated in institutions specially adapted to their reformation, and other provision should be made for children simply unfortunate.

The plan of training girls in the same institution with boys, although in a distinct department, I think a serious mistake. They should be in a separate institution specially organized for the work, the internal affairs of which should be directed by ladies, constituting a part, if not the whole, of the board of managers. Boards of trustees sometimes appoint committees of women to aid them in the girls' department, but usually the powers conferred are only advisory. I think that in all juvenile reformatory work women should be permitted to participate as equals, and that the boards of all our reform schools for boys should be in part composed of women; for, certainly, we need here the experience of the mother. We need her knowledge of domestic affairs, her tact in the school, her gentleness in the hospital, and her exalted purity in moral training.

A fault in some of our reform schools is their great size. In the congregating of large numbers, individuality is lost. It is found inconvenient to call a child by name. Instead of Richard, he is known by number five hundred and ninety-nine. This fixes his place at the table, in the school, and the dormitory. He becomes part of a great machine, which operates without his volition. The sympathy and confidence between guardian and ward are necessarily reduced, by the heterogeneous multitude, to an influence comparable to that of the affection expressed by abstract numbers. Cut off from this elevating stimulus in his teachers, the youth seeks it in those who, like himself, need reforming. These excessive aggregations are overcome to a great extent in the cottage plan, but even the subdivision of a large establishment into cottage homes is considered by many less efficient than the small institution. It has been emphatically asserted by the head of one of the largest juvenile reformatories in the world that "a reform school should never receive more than one hundred boys."

There is a great misconception in the public mind respecting the true purpose of reform schools. "How can they be conducted with the least expense?" "How can the largest revenue be derived from the labor of the children?" These are the usual questions respecting their management. But they are questions that we do not apply to our public schools. To support the educational system

of the country, according to the last published report of the Bureau of Education, there was expended in the various States and Territories during the year ending June 30, 1884, the sum of \$103,949.528. We hear no complaint that the object was not worthy this expenditure. We hear nothing said about obtaining revenue from the labor of school children. We hear something of the introduction of technical education into the public schools, but no one looks for a pecuniary return from this project; and yet it is as important that the bad boy who may burden the State as a future criminal, should be reformed and saved as that the good boy should be educated. In carrying on this work, we lose sight of the real issue, when seeking to do it cheaply. Those methods that bring the best results, however expensive, are in the line of true economy. But, in choosing methods, we should consider that good discipline and even education are only means, not ends. The aim first, last, and always should be, to make the subject a good and useful citizen.

In the plan referred to for dealing with juvenile delinquency, prevention, as a governing principle, and the reformation of youth, as far as practicable, outside of the institution rather than within it, should be kept steadily in view. A boy's conduct may be good while he remains in an institution where he is removed from the temptations that made him an offender. Place him in his former surroundings, and he may be as bad as before; but, if he is truly reformed in the midst of adverse influences, he gains that moral strength which makes his reform permanent.

The plan would include a modification of the Massachusetts State Agency system of dealing with juvenile offenders, as also of the Michigan system of County Visitors, as applied to dependent children. A central unpaid supervising board, independent of political influence, should direct the work, with power to appoint a paid State agent and an unsalaried agent in every county, who should be one of a committee of visitors likewise appointed by such board. It should have jurisdiction over all classes of children brought before the courts with a view to restraint or correction. The local committee should consist of persons residing in different parts of the county, who would look after the delinquent children that had been brought under State supervision, and report respecting them, from time to time, to the county agent, who should likewise report to the State Board through the State agent. There are now, in various States and countries, societies for the prevention of cruelty to children. So far as I can learn, these have been of great benefit, hav-

ing invariably won the confidence of the courts by their impartial course, and proved valuable in protecting the helpless and in furthering the aims of justice. Where these societies exist, they might, in the discretion of the State Board, assume the functions of a local committee, the superintendent of the society acting as the county agent.

Before trial, at least before sentence is passed, the county agent should be notified, in order that he may be present at the trial to protect the interests of the child. By a conference of the agent with parents and child, it has frequently occurred in Massachusetts that a pledge for good behavior has been given upon thorough repentance, the charge withdrawn, and the delinquent saved from an official record of crime, and without further expense to the State. Not infrequently, it was found that the parents were at fault, either too lax or too severe; and moderate counsel given in a friendly spirit set matters right. The parents, by being reminded of the importance of saving their family name from a criminal record, were inspired by a clearer sense of duty; and the offender, warned of his danger, under a pledge to the agent of future good behavior, began at once to lead a better life. The agent should be empowered to remove a delinquent from evil associations, and provide for him elsewhere under family care. The court should be empowered, upon reasonable grounds, to suspend sentence at the request of the agent to give the delinquent an opportunity to reform under promise of good behavior, and, if a later report of the agent is favorable, to continue suspension, and finally, if reform is effected, to omit further action in the case. One favorable result of this course would be the preventing of the commitment of children to houses of refuge on frivolous charges, trumped up solely for the purpose of ridding the parent or guardian of their support.

There is in every large village, as well as in our cities, a class of lawless, untaught boys and wayward girls that should be brought under restraint, and, if need be, correction,—a class which is a prolific source of pauperism and crime. Could the leaders of these youthful gangs in some simple way be placed under legal supervision or restraint, and a wholesome respect for the law implanted in their young minds, the saving influence would extend not only to the child under treatment, but to his associates, and a dangerous evil would be corrected. If legally placed under the control of the county agent, he could direct the attention of members of the local committee to such cases, and they might influence the delinquent to reform,



and thus be able, by a favorable report, to avert further proceedings. The ladies of these committees may be particularly useful to a class of girls, who, deprived of salutary home influences and surrounded by temptations and inducements to sin, have but few incentives to do well. Distrusted by good people and deluded by the bad, they need the counsel, encouragement, and reclaiming influence of the benevolent.

As showing what is possible under a State Agency system, it may be stated that between July 17, 1869, and Oct. 1, 1878, the Massachusetts Agency attended hearings before the courts of 17,136 complaints against juvenile offenders, besides performing an extended work in visitation, seeking places for children, placing them out, etc. Of the 17,136 brought before the courts, 2,945 were discharged, 5,340 paid money penalties, 4,392 were placed on probation, and 835 cases were disposed of by placing them on file or by indefinitely continuing them, or by returning the offenders to institutions where they had once been. During this period, it was found necessary to send only 1,088 of the whole number to the State Reform School, 205 to the State Nautical School, and but 192 to penal institutions.

In making an examination a few years since of the methods of dealing with truants in the principal cities of England, Ireland, and Scotland, I found that the School Board of Liverpool had established, for the correction of obstinate cases of truancy, a house of detention a few miles from the city, in a secluded situation, and easily reached by railway. It is a plain, two-story, brick building, with living accommodations for officers, teachers, and boys under correction. The small rooms are well lighted by a window, placed so high that one can see only the sky through it. The rooms have no embellishments and only the simplest furniture. Boys whom the agent of the School Board cannot prevail upon to attend school are sent to the house of detention for terms of from five to not more than thirty days. They are there kept under a solitary system, and subjected to the severest training compatible with their years and the preservation of their health. Food is taken to their rooms. They are marched in single file to the shops, where they work in small squads behind rows of benches, each boy facing the officer in charge. No recreation except outdoor calisthenics is permitted. The rules forbid conversation or any kind of intercourse between the boys. This punishment having been administered once, it is rarely found necessary to inflict it again. A second term is, however, longer than the first, but shorter than the third, beyond which this kind of disci-

pline is not continued. After having been sent a third time to the house of detention, the delinquent, if justly arrested for any cause, is considered a fit subject for a long commitment to a reformatory school. In this brief but sharp and severe punishment there is no lasting stigma upon the character nor injury to the person, nor is there danger of moral contamination from evil associates. While the remedy is inexpensive, it is effective, the experience imparting a permanent dread of corrective confinement.

Similar houses for the correction of juvenile delinquency might be established near our large cities, and prove useful in materially lessening commitments to our houses of refuge and reform schools, thus relieving them of much of their expensively conducted work. Under the extreme limit of sentence,—thirty days,—twenty-four boys could be dealt with here at no greater expense than that of one boy maintained in a house of refuge for two years, and with much better prospects of reformation. In case the conduct of a boy could not be corrected by the influence of the county agent or by holding him under suspended sentence or in family care, he might be committed for a short term to a house of detention. If one or two repetitions of this kind of punishment should not prove effectual, longer discipline in the reform school should be tried. It is true that an early offence is sometimes so serious as to require direct commitment to a reformatory school or other prolonged detention under thorough training; but, usually, a life of crime is approached by progressive steps. The knowledge that there existed an ever-present and vigilant power, watchful over their conduct, would in itself, in many cases, be sufficient to arrest young offenders in a vicious career, without calling active corrective measures into requisition.

The adoption of preventive measures, as suggested, would make it necessary to commit but few to the reform school; and, in the plan proposed, this institution should be located on a farm removed some distance from the city, and organized and controlled, when practicable, by private benevolence. It should receive aid from the State, city, or county, but not sufficient to maintain it, so that public sympathy would be kept alive in the reformatory work. Parents, too, should be required to contribute, in accordance with their means, toward the support of their children in these institutions, in order that they may feel a due share of responsibility.

These schools should be small, such having proved the most successful. They should be examined by a central supervising board, and certified to as suitable for the care and training of delinquents

before being permitted to receive inmates; and this examination should be repeated, and the certificate renewed each year as a condition to continuance. Should peculiar circumstances make it desirable that the institution receive more than one hundred inmates, the cottage plan should be adopted.

The internal system of the reformatory school should be as nearly as practicable that of the family, with its refining and elevating influences; while the awakening of the conscience and the inculcation of religious principles should be primary aims. Perhaps a boy enters the school feeling that the hand of every man is against him, and with revenge in his heart; but let him there find a corps of just but merciful guides, ready to teach him and help him and love him, and it is reasonable to expect that he will soon be actuated by better feelings and nobler resolves. The school should be thorough in all its methods, and aim to impart a plain education and also give instruction in mechanical drawing.

Every boy should be instructed in some useful trade or occupation, and his wishes consulted in selecting it. Trades should be taught under the Russian system of technologic training, whereby a boy, as Mr. Auchmuty in his trade school in New York has demonstrated, may be taught plumbing, carpentering, stone and brick laying, plastering, and other useful handicrafts in from three to four months; and when so taught, although not having the expertness that comes with practice, is a better mechanic than though he had spent five years in acquiring a trade in the old way, because he has learned those principles of mechanics and chemistry applicable to his trade. Such as prefer farming and gardening, so far as season and weather permit, should be employed and instructed in these pursuits. Every boy should likewise be taught, as far as practicable, the many little arts, too frequently neglected in the training of youth, which are applicable to every industry.

Courts should, as now, commit children under sixteen years of age that require such restraint to the guardianship of reform schools during their minority. At least six of the first months should be spent in the institution. After this time, if the offender is thoroughly repentant, he should be placed in a family, subject to recall. Provision should be made for the transfer of exceptional cases to institutions like the New York State Reformatory at Elmira, or to other appropriate places for the incorrigible. I once expressed surprise to the superintendent of an English reform school, which had no barred windows nor bolts nor surrounding walls, that the boys, who

were working in a large vegetable garden, were allowed such freedom. He pointed to the spire of a building rising through the green foliage a few miles distant, and said: "That is a penitentiary. Every boy here knows that we have power to transfer him there, where he will have harder fare and be kept at work under a solitary system."

The whole theory of this plan, applicable to children under sixteen years of age, should be in conformity with the principle upon which a loving Saviour deals with us,—forgiveness upon true repentance. However depraved we may be, our heavenly Father only asks us to repent, and he receives us with open arms. This is what we should do with an erring child. To inflict punishment beyond this is vindictive, and must tend to harden the moral nature. I venture to say that I think there are in some of our houses of refuge and reform schools as many as fifty or seventy-five per cent. of children that never should have been sent there, and that others, properly committed, but turned out unimproved, could have been reformed, if they had been put under guardianship outside when honestly repentant. In days of trial and humiliation, there comes a time when the heart yields its stubborn purpose and the soul is filled with sorrowful regrets. In the case of young offenders, this may be made the occasion to shape the spiritual nature into grace and beauty. Neglect the opportunity, and indifference and obduracy ensue; and we fail to save that which is of priceless value.

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## BOARDING OUT OF DEPENDENT CHILDREN IN MASSACHUSETTS.

BY ADELAIDE A. CALKINS.

It is now more than thirty years since Massachusetts began to consider the great importance of wise provision for the rearing of her pauper children. In 1866, the separation of children over three years of age from adult paupers at its State Almshouse was effected. The adults (except some of the mothers who were employed as servants) were removed to another part of the State; while the children were retained in their old quarters, and a system of school instruction was established for them. They were now known not as pauper, but dependent children; and the institution was named the State Primary School. Here they were to receive their schooling until they could pay their way by usefulness, when they were to be placed in families. The desirability of freeing the insti-

tution as rapidly as possible of its young inmates was impressed upon its officers; and salaried agents (men) were appointed to visit them regularly, when placed out.

This plan alone governed the institution until 1879, when women were appointed on the board of trustees. As opinions differed with regard to the success of the existing policy and methods used, a careful investigation was made; and, among other facts revealed, it was found that in 1879 the average number of children was 407, that 186 were admitted, that 137 were placed in families. 47 were returned, and 27 remained more than six years in the school. In January, 1880, there were 95 over twelve years of age. It was also found that the children did not gain those qualifications needful to fit them for desirable homes, and that those remaining longest in the school were deficient in handiness and ability to help about house and stable. It was now admitted that this congregate institution could not provide that industrial teaching and moral training requisite to a successful start at self-support, and that some means for an earlier introduction into family life should be provided.

The observation for ten years of the difficulty, not to say impossibility, of finding homes for a limited number of children from private institutions, led those interested to advocate the boarding-out system, as practised in Great Britain.

With the projectors of this new policy, the prime idea was so to place these children that they should have as nearly as possible an equal chance with the average of children in their new homes, and so be absorbed into respectable communities, and grow up useful citizens, with the least possible chance of lapsing into pauperism. In the spring of 1880, the following act was passed by the legislature:—

Section 1. The trustees of the State Primary and Reform Schools shall have full power to place in charge of suitable persons any of the children of the State Primary School, the power of visitation and final discharge remaining with the State Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charity, as now fixed by law. And said trustees may provide for the maintenance of any child so placed, in whole or part, at a cost to the State not exceeding two dollars per week. The expense of such maintenance shall be paid from the annual appropriation for the current expense of said school.

In December, 1880, the work actually commenced by the placing of four children under eight years of age at board. Further legislation in May, 1882, enabled the Board of Health, Lunacy, and

Charity to provide for children in need from three to sixteen years of age at the State Primary School or "*elsewhere*." By this act, the board were permitted to board out indigent and neglected children *directly*, without passing through the institution.

In connection with the boarding out, upon which the degree of success must depend, is a closely guarded system of visitation by women. Not more than two children are permitted in one family, unless brothers and sisters; and the State permits no children except its wards to be boarded in a family. This is to prevent families from becoming small institutions, and children being taken for profit.

For obvious reasons, the work has proceeded slowly and cautiously. No unfavorable criticisms of the system are anywhere heard. Eight children under eight years of age were placed at board from the School within a year after the law passed. The number boarded from that institution in 1884 was thirty-one. Jan. 1, 1886, forty-eight children under eight years of age had been placed out to board, not including the neglected children boarded by the Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charity. Absence from the country during a part of 1883 and in 1884 prevented my continued personal knowledge of the work.

The following extracts from the report of the trustees of the State Primary School for the year ending Oct. 1, 1884, will perhaps give a fair idea of the cost and its practical benefits:—

The average cost per week for each inmate, including expenditures for extraordinary repairs and improvements, was \$2.25<sup>10</sup>/<sub>100</sub>, an annual *per capita* cost of \$117.89. Including the said extraordinary expenses and improvements, the weekly cost was \$2.29.

Each child boarded out in a family under the Act of 1880 costs for board \$1.50 per week, and an allowance for clothing of \$4 per quarter, a little less than 31 cents per week. An outfit of clothing varying in cost from \$12 to \$15 is furnished to each one of these children.

If the cost of the outfit be added to the price paid for board and the allowance for clothing, the cost to the State for the first year is slightly above, but for two or more years it is somewhat below, the \$2 per week prescribed by the statute.

In occasional and peculiar cases, when circumstances have seemed to require it, the trustees have authorized the payment of bills for medical attendance, and, in one instance, the expense of nursing for boarding-out children.

The boarding out has in some cases resulted in the adoption of the child into the same or some neighboring family, and the State has thus been relieved of the burden of its support.

Before again petitioning the legislature for an appropriation for



placing children between three and ten years of age at board in country families, one of the trustees visited and reported in detail concerning over fifty children already at board (some of these being boarded out by the Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charity), in order to enable the trustees to decide whether the condition of these children and their surroundings and apparent opportunities for improvement are such as to warrant further expenditure in the same direction.

In nearly every instance, these children were found to be attending the same schools with the children of the neighboring households. They were beginning to feel, if not a proprietorship, at least a common interest in and responsibility for the lighter work of the household. They were up early to go with the "uncle" for the cows, to help pick up potatoes, to feed one pet chicken, to brush the floor, wipe a few dishes, or to make a beginning of the patchwork quilt. They welcomed the official visitors, Mrs. Fisher and the trustee, with apparent pleasure. They sang their little songs, recited portions of their lessons, and read to them from their primers; but they evidently had no wish to be taken away from the "home farm," with its barn and pig-sty. In more than one instance, where a child of the household had died, the little stranger had won a place in the hearts of its guardians, and was spoken of with peculiar tenderness. Neighbors had wished for just such children to take to board.

This work needs deliberation and care. The child must be fitted to the home. The agent of the State Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charity (Mrs. Fisher), deserves great credit for the conscientious discrimination she has used.

The city of Springfield adopted the boarding-out system for its wards under twelve years of age when the law was passed prohibiting children over three years of age from remaining in almshouses. At present, the number boarded is eighteen, rather below the average of other years. The cost *per capita*, including clothing and other necessary expenses, is a little less than \$2 per week.

With seven years' experience, the city officials having the work in charge express unqualified satisfaction with the method. Eighty-two individual children have been boarded between the years 1878 and 1886, and the success with which at twelve years of age they pass into satisfactory self-support is reported by the agent of the Overseers of the Poor to be most gratifying.

The visitation of the city's wards is by a system of regular voluntary service of women, as well as by the agent of the Overseers of the Poor.

The comfortable home life now opened to the young dependent children of city and State by the boarding-out system is elevating, and affords the best practical training that can be given. There is

little difficulty in securing all the privileges demanded for them by the State. Their health is protected, attendance at school regular. Being made presentable by suitable dress, they are received pleasantly by the children of the neighborhood at church and social gatherings. All of which is quite unlike the placed-out self-supporting child, too often overworked, with school and social privileges curtailed to the minimum.

It is accepted as true that a poor home is better for the rearing of a child than an institution; but it is also true that the better the home, the better the chances for the child's future well-being.

To accomplish the best results in preventive work, the fact must not be overlooked that character and habits in the young are not so dependent upon parentage and heredity as upon daily impressions received.

## STATE AID TO PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS.

BY JUDGE RICHARD PRENDERGAST.

The penal and semi-penal institutions of the country, known as reformatories, are crowded with a vast and growing population of both sexes, the number being constantly augmented, and this chiefly from the neglected and destitute children who are without proper parental care.

To reach the evil and to eradicate it to any measurable extent, the efforts of the philanthropist and of the statesman should go to the regions where the young are led by circumstances to evil, and then, before they have yet transgressed the law, to remove and to rescue them from the danger that surrounds them; for, in the great majority of instances, the dependent child becomes criminal because of conditions not within his control,—conditions that arise from defects both in the structure of society and in component members of it.

The State, being the protector of society, derives its right to place such a child in an institution, and to restrain it of its liberty there, from the probability of danger to society, though the child has not actually transgressed the laws.

Hence there is an obligation on the part of the State, both with respect to the child and to society, to remove the conditions of evil and to create the conditions of good, thus amending for society and fitting for participation in it the child that is to become an active member of it, either for good or for evil.

What does such a child lack? Chiefly proper care, proper parental care, which includes bodily nurture, mental culture, religious training. Wholly deprived of either, the child cannot become a member of society, fitted to discharge the duties appertaining to it as a social being. A chief good of these three elements of parental care is that they are provided by the parent. Of this good, society partakes; for it is for the welfare and dignity of society that filial devotion be universal, and this devotion is founded on the consciousness of the child that it is indebted to the parent. It is needless to inquire which would be the saddest state,—that of the child deprived of bodily nurture only, of mental training only, or of moral training only. As it is agreed that the three elements are necessary for the proper rearing of the child, and where all are absent because of the baseness or default or misfortune of the parent, it is clear that the State should not aid in supplying one part only of parental duty to those who are so deprived, and that it should aid in supplying all if it undertakes to supply any.

To furnish two of these, and fail entirely to furnish the other, would be but offering to the child mutilated aid.

There will be little disagreement as to what constitutes proper bodily support and proper mental culture; and, so far as the State is concerned, there is no need or propriety in discussing what constitutes proper religious training, for it is fundamental with us that the State should neither teach any particular creed or religion nor make discrimination between particular creeds or religions. There can be no religious training without positive instruction on religious principles and subjects. Some assert that moral training may be had apart from and without religious training, that the State is concerned only in the morals of these children, and that, therefore, it may ignore, deny, and fail to give religious training. All history and knowledge stamp that doctrine as false and dangerous. Man's moral training commences with religious training, and religious training is moral training. Ethical culture is inseparable from religious training, and takes place, if at all, but in the case of a few choice spirits of humanity.

President Eliot, of Harvard College, has well said, "There is no science of ethics, and morality cannot be divorced from religion." All will agree that criminality is best prevented by instilling principles of pure morals in the heart. The state existed prior to the coming of Christ, but it was necessary for Him to come to teach morals. And, to do this, He founded religion. Can there be now

devised a method of teaching morality superior to the method of Christ?

Education, culture, material greatness, and great advancement in all departments of human industry and knowledge existed in Rome, side by side with a complete debasement of the moral element in man; and the result was the overthrow of man's material greatness.

Man is a religious being; that is, he is prone to religion, he adores. This is so always and everywhere. At its best development, this is religion: at its worst, it is superstition.

The child deprived of parental and religious training has an added need of positive instruction in this respect at the hands of whoever would undertake to supply his wants. And failure to reform in reformatories, wherever it is found, arises principally from the fact that the State is unable to teach morals, and hence it does not teach morals.

The inmates of State institutions, being various as to class or denomination, receive no religious training at all, except of a very perfunctory sort.

Washington, in his farewell address, says, "Let us with caution indulge the supposition that morality can be obtained without religion." How, then, can the State perform its duties toward these dependent children in respect to their moral and religious training, which must be considered the most important part of the care needed by the child? This question has been met and solved by legislation providing for generous public aid to private benevolence and philanthropy.

A commission appointed in 1870 by the legislature of Pennsylvania, known as the Board of Public Charities, reported in favor of a statute, impartial in its provisions as to all elements of the people of the State, to furnish aid to private benevolence organized for the support and education of destitute and neglected children. And the report of this commission shows that it explored the subject to its sources. Referring to the proposition discussed before it,—to establish State schools,—the board says, "Would she [the State] fail in their administration? Has it ever occurred that the defective classes were effectually benefited without the co-operation of that warm humanity which stimulates private zeal and benevolence?"

The same board says:—

The State should do her part in educational work by making moderate *per capita* allowances to schools and homes established by private and philanthropic enterprise wherever they are needed for

the industrial training and education of the class referred to. The State should, as a matter of course, exercise a right of inspection, and see that the money she grants is not squandered or misapplied, and should reserve the power of revoking her sanction and withholding her aid whenever she judges that there is occasion for such course. The system above recommended for its abatement and suppression has received in England a recognized *status* from the government; and the schools established by it are aided by government grants, and are practically employed as a part of the machinery of the educational work of the State.

The English system of certified industrial schools is an admirable method of combining State aid and private philanthropy in this great work. Schools which combine industrial features with the elements of common school education, and which clothe, lodge, and feed the pupils, may apply to the public examiner or inspector to be admitted to the benefits of the acts of parliament. If the inspector is satisfied that the institution supplies the requirements of an industrial school, and that the management is worthy, the school is enrolled and certified, and thereafter is entitled to public aid.

In this way, all of the religious denominations have encouragement to apply their energies to the work; and their zeal is apt to be increased by the feeling that they are caring for the unfortunate of their own household. The Pennsylvania board, continuing, says: "By this course of procedure, it was made manifest at the late International Congress, by indisputable testimony,—namely, by authenticated returns from prisons and reformatories,—that the condition of the whole juvenile population of England has been changed, and, in the language of a distinguished member of that body, 'the system has cut up juvenile crime by the roots, and has almost destroyed juvenile crime in many localities.'" Lieber, in his great work on *Political Ethics*, says: "If society have a fair start in civilization, no principle can be sounder than to leave as much to private exertion as the public weal, comfort, and morality allow. Individual industry, private combination, and associations which are conscious that they depend upon themselves alone, are possessed of a vigor, keenness, and detailed industry that cannot be expected of the action of the State, if applied to industry or other exertions partly connected with industry."

Besides this inability on the part of the State to furnish really and truly this religious part of education, there are many other reasons in support of the proposition that the State, which, as a political organization, is not capable of doing this work, is capable of aiding,

and should aid, private benevolence to do it. Private institutions are invariably managed at much less cost than public institutions. This private system continually keeps alive the spirit of benevolent charity among the people; and mercy is twice blessed, for it blesses him that gives as well as him that receives. By this means will the people be continually reminded of the brotherhood of man. Of course, it is the people who support State institutions; but this support is obtained by taxation, and contributions to charity are not exalted when derived from the payment of taxes. Moreover, the State is not an eleemosynary institution, and what it does in this respect it does and has a right to do for self-protection alone. State institutions leave an impression of pauperism and generate a feeling of helplessness in those who are educated and supported in them, which in after life quite destroys whatever apparently good effects may be secured during detention. This is not so when the children know that they are in homes conducted by persons connected with them by ties of friendship, and other ties that bind the inmates of private institutions to those that conduct them. The proper place to educate the child is at home; and the farther removed the life of the child from home life, the greater the evil to the child and to society; and the closer the life of the child is made to conform to the home life, the better for the child and the better for society. People will not adopt as their own children out of State reformatory institutions, although there are many homes in which such children may become domestics and servants. But a conspicuous good done by private charitable institutions is to replace in homes in society, as members of it, children that they saved.

In the popular mind, a tinge and stain of criminality or inferiority and defectiveness adhere to all children who at any time were inmates of State institutions. This popular feeling does not exist in respect to these children cared for in private institutions, at least by no means to the same extent as to the others. However unfounded this impression may be, it remains, it cannot be argued away. And it is with this popular mind these children will have to deal when the time comes to face the outside world.

In State institutions, the administration is carried on by persons who engage in that work for the sake of a living. Youth is quick to ascertain, and very soon comes to know, that the persons who have them in charge are engaged in that work, not solely for the good of the children, but for the good of themselves and their own families. This is so as a general thing, notwithstanding the fact that



many of the officials of State institutions are good, worthy, and conscientious men and women.

On the other hand, in private institutions, a child soon comes to know that the persons in whose control it is are engaged in the work because of their sympathy with human misfortune, and because of their love of the God of mercy. In this respect, it is apparent to any one who looks at the question at all that private institutions conducted by private benevolence and charity are immeasurably superior for purposes of real reformation and education to State institutions.

And to look at the roster of officials in State institutions, and examine as to their party affiliations, one soon discovers that there exists in the minds of the appointing powers the idea that persons fit to conduct the charitable work of the State are to be found only in that political party which achieved the latest success at the polls.

Institutions organized and conducted by private benevolence and aided by the State, as we have seen, have solved the question of the treatment of delinquent children in England. That system has been warmly approved and sanctioned by the International Congress of Charities. In Illinois, a somewhat similar system has met with much success, although the promoters of the schools in some respects have not met with that encouragement from private quarters that they and their work merited.

The statutes of Illinois provide that, when a child is found dependent, it may be sent to an industrial or training school, and that the county from which the child is sent shall pay for its support a moderate allowance. In or near Chicago there are two schools for girls,—one conducted by ladies of Protestant denominations and one by Catholic ladies. There is one school for boys. All are doing splendid service, and this is mainly owing to the exertions of their organizers and conductors in applying the system of private institutions of which this paper treats. The Illinois statutes are very liberal, and are fully in accord with the advanced spirit of liberality and fair play, which is, above all things, American. Under these statutes, charitably disposed persons of any of the various religious denominations, or even without regard to denominational lines, may organize a school for boys or for girls; and, on obtaining the approval of the governor, they become entitled to the benefits of the act,—that is, for each child the county is required to pay a sum ranging from \$7 to \$10 per month. Thus, the law is absolutely even in its justice to all elements of the population. This impartiality of these statutes is a splendid jewel in the legislation of our State. Our present hon-

ored Gov. Oglesby has signalized his administration by his impartial execution of these statutes. If the writer may submit a single request to this Conference, it is this: that the Conference not only approve the policy of State aid to private institutions, but that it urge the public, and particularly those blessed with abundant means, to inaugurate and found such institutions, where the reign of love, the reign of law, and the reign of God will combine with the happiest results. Thus, the children of misfortune may be rescued, and the recruiting ground for vice and crime may be obliterated and destroyed. So will they do the work of Him who said, "Suffer the little children to come unto me."

## IX.

### Organization of Charities.

#### ORGANIZATION OF CHARITY.

##### REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE.

BY W. ALEXANDER JOHNSON, CHAIRMAN.

The name of the committee whose report I present to you was changed at the last session of the Conference from the "Committee on Charity Organization in Cities" to the "Committee on the Organization of Charity." The intention of the change, as I understood it, was to avoid the inference that only those societies calling themselves Charity Organization Societies, or by names intentionally similar, were treated by this committee, and also to include societies existing in rural districts.

As last year's report gave full recognition to all organized charitable societies,—not homes or other institutions,—there is no change in the method or scope of the committee from last year. It is manifest, in presenting this report, that it is impossible to give space to every society, even by name. To enumerate the societies, giving their proper titles and the barest synopsis of their work, would consume the time allotted by the Conference to the whole subject. We must therefore request the Conference to accept the report of the committee as containing a fair statement of conclusions reached through careful consideration of the reports furnished and other data.

The general feeling is one of encouragement and hopefulness. The Charity Organization Societies proper, especially, say that the year has been one of progress in popular appreciation, as shown by better financial support, more general understanding of the work, and more efficient co-operation in almost every branch. New departures have not been many. Those that have taken place are in the direction of copying well-tried and successful plans from other cities rather than entirely new experiments. Thus, the Boston Society has broadened its General Conference, and so secured better and fuller

representation of co-operating societies. Chicago has organized an "Assembly" like that of Philadelphia. Both these take up subjects of general interest, and secure well-attended public meetings, thus familiarizing the citizens with the idea of *associated* work. Provident schemes are multiplying; and their importance is being everywhere recognized as among the very best material for propagandism and advertisement, as well as the most salutary way of helping the poor. These have not all been perfectly successful. They need good business management, and are, generally speaking, safer in the hands of paid secretaries or superintendents than entirely in those of volunteers. A system of savings societies, in several towns (among them Castleton, N.Y., and Cambridge, Mass.), in which a regular amount is collected from the depositor every week by visitors, is worthy of notice; and there is a plan suggested, in connection with the Indianapolis Society, for a building and loan society, with small weekly dues, similarly collected, which seems very hopeful.

Since the last Conference, the following societies have been organized, namely: Society of Organized Charities, Augusta, Ga.; Charity Organization Society, Castleton, N.Y.; Associated Charities, Columbus, Ohio; Associated Charities, Springfield, Ohio; and Society for Improving Condition of Poor, Lexington, Ky. The following societies, previously organized, but not on the printed lists of correspondents for charity purposes furnished by this committee last year, are also to be added to the rolls: Union Charitable Society, Hyde Park, Ill.; Associated Charities, Lynn, Mass.; Organization for Improving Condition of Poor, Newburg, N.Y.; and the Society for Organizing Charities, Trenton, N.J. We would also mention the Protestant Associated Charities of Montreal, and the combined city charities of Toronto, Canada.

There has been one successful attempt to organize the charity of a rural district. The district of Bryn Mawr, Ardmore, and other suburban villages near Philadelphia, has arranged a system covering a territory eight miles long by two wide, employing two officers commissioned by the State under special law, and conducting a Wayfarers' Lodge. It has helped to rid the district of the tramps who formerly lurked in the woods, and often caused serious apprehension. It has also been very useful in relieving distress incidental to a period of depression in business and an epidemic of typhoid fever in the vicinity. At present there is little dependence or vagrancy in the territory covered by this society.

Reports in answer to inquiries sent out have been received from

forty-five sources, twenty-six of which are charity organization societies pure and simple, twelve are societies combining the functions of relief and aid with Charity Organization Societies with more or less success, and eight are societies not attempting charity organization work as a special feature. Besides the information specially acquired by report to its chairman, the committee has availed itself of information gathered from printed annual reports, newspapers, and the reports of last year, so that it is able to say that there are known to it to exist to-day in the United States sixty-seven organized efforts for charitable relief of various kinds.

It classes those so known as follows: fifty-two societies whose chief work is the bringing into harmonious relations all the numerous charitable efforts (public and private) of societies, churches, and individuals, so as to discourage pauperism and prevent imposition and fraud,—twenty of these combine the separate functions of the giving of relief with the organization of charity, and thirty-two confine themselves to the latter and such other outside matters as shall not conflict with it, such as the organization of provident schemes, etc.; eleven are societies whose chief work is the material relief of the poor, but who recognize the value of organized and associated effort, and are making earnest and successful endeavor in this direction; and five are societies who recognize the importance of systematic relief as opposed to the mere casual alms of the benevolent, but who do not adequately realize that modern science demands the organization and co-ordination of their efforts with those of other relief agencies and private almoners, or who do not see their way clear to attempting such measures under existing circumstances.

There are probably about twenty or twenty-five other similar relief societies of importance, and doing the principal almsgiving of their locality; but, from the extent to which efforts have been made to collect information, it is not believed that there are more than the latter number existent. It would seem reasonable to suppose that these ninety or ninety-five organized societies, together with the thousands of church charities, should be able to do much toward the elevation of the seven hundred thousand paupers and tramps (taking Mr. Andrews' estimate) who are constantly coming to or passing through the cities. Unfortunately, not such elevation, but palliative relief, which, like the nostrum of the quack, aggravates the disease whose symptoms it temporarily alleviates, is the method of many of these societies, and is one of the reasons why the pauper so largely remains in that state of life to which it has pleased unwise charity to call him.

Among the questions addressed to societies for this report was one with regard to the per cent. of worthy and unworthy applications made to them. The division was made into four classes, namely: worthy of continuous relief, by pensions, in almshouses, etc.; worthy of temporary relief through sickness, death, or accident; needing work rather than relief; and unworthy of any relief. It has been very difficult to get trustworthy returns upon these heads; and this committee suggests to its successor the advisability of deciding on the statistics it intends to ask for in the course of the next two months, and at once make the request, so that there will be time for explanations and also for the gathering of statistics of a different kind from those kept by the societies, if necessary. A statistical table has been prepared, using the figures presented by seventeen societies, which has some usefulness. The remarkable agreement of the East between the percentages of Boston and New York, and at the West between those of Louisville and Indianapolis, is more than a coincidence, and indicates a remarkably close parallel in many respects. Leaving out of consideration a few comparatively small and orderly communities, where the problem of the poor has become a thoroughly familiar and accurately stated, if not a solved, one, the average given by twelve cities of cases worthy of continuous help is nine per cent., which is probably a little above the exact percentage for the United States. Taking the same twelve cities and correcting the figures for some evident double counting, the average of those worthy of temporary help is twenty-five per cent.; those needing work rather than relief, thirty-nine and eight-tenths per cent.; and unworthy of all relief, twenty-six per cent.

These figures may be taken as very nearly accurate for the whole country, but it must be distinctly remembered that they include only cases applying to or reported to organized societies, and investigated by them. If the total applications for help made to public and private sources could be reported, there is no doubt the per cent. of unworthy ones would be very much larger, and would probably reach ninety or ninety-five per cent. of the whole number, the reason for this being that fraudulent persons apply again and again, while the worthy ask only once. Bearing this in mind, the figures presented may safely be used in considerations of social economics.

The question presses, What shall we do with these sixty-five per cent. of our poor who either will not work or cannot get work to do? About the others, the worthy poor who need temporary or permanent help, it is easy to decide; but how shall we treat the forty per cent. of



worthy poor who need work? How shall we help them, and still save them from pauperism? Organized charity must solve this problem, if it is to be solved; and upon its solution depends much of the future of our nation. There is no problem presented to us which deserves more than this of earnest thought and consecrated effort. This has given rise to the numerous schemes intended to help the poor to self-help. This problem has inspired provident coal-clubs, provident wood-yards, *crèches*, laundries, provident dispensaries, etc. On this side, organized charity became positive, not, as in its investigations, its registration, etc., chiefly negative and repressive; and this is the large and fruitful field offered to the Friendly Visitor.

Two papers to be read to you will discuss this question from the sides of schemes for self-help and Friendly Visitors' work. They will be presented by gentlemen of large and successful experience in organizing these departments, and will be, we trust, notable additions to the literature of Charity Organization.

An attempt was made in securing reports to frame questions which should show the difference, if any, between the individual personal work among the poor inspired by societies making relief a leading feature, and by those which restrict their activities to charity organization work proper. It has long been claimed by advocates of charity organizations pure and simple that mixing up the two kinds of work in the same office and by the same agents is objectionable, and that in such cases the personal work sinks beneath the official relief. The answers received to these queries are not quite satisfactory, from the fact that less than one-half of the societies known as combining these functions noticed the questions, while the others all gave answers. The comparison of the answers received, as far as they go, is overpoweringly in favor of the statement advanced; namely, that the effect of this combination of two dissimilar kinds of work is that relief absorbs the energy of the worker to the neglect and serious loss of the personal influence that is the real object of organized charity; that the motto, "Not alms, but a friend," is no mere catch-word, but expresses a great principle, which cannot be disregarded without loss,—namely, that there is something in almsgiving destructive of friendship, and that a society, as well as an individual, seeking to do friendly work, must avoid it.

It has been held by some that it is impossible to do charity organization work outside of Boston and New York without the almsgiving tacked on; but the fact, rather, seems that it is *almost* impossible to do it with that addition.

Concerning treating cases without relief, the societies best equipped with Friendly Visitors, and working most nearly according to strict Charity Organization principles, are united in saying that the number of worthy cases treated without alms is increasing. From Boston comes this word: "Our visitors are learning more and more to work without almsgiving." Brooklyn says, "The strength and aggressive power of the Charity Organization movement are, I am more and more convinced, in the line of Friendly Visitors' work." The general expression in this respect is very strong. It is impossible to furnish exact statistics of the proportion, since so many cases have already been aided when undertaken by the societies.

Possibly, a good idea of the scope and the possibilities of organized charity may be obtained by comparing the present condition of two societies, one in a small and easily managed community, to show what is possible, and one in a large and difficult community to show the magnitude of the work.

Let us look for a few moments at the aspect of Charity Organization in New York to-day, to give an idea of the amount of work in a vast city. After several years of patient and enthusiastic labor, the city is not nearly covered by the district committees: those who do the constructive work of organized charity — churches, charity societies, etc., to the number of 229 — have entered into relations of co-operation with the society; but there are still as many more who have not yet discovered how good is organization, and how valuable it may be to them. The last report, averaging a period of nine months, shows 6,377 applicants, of which 3,847 have been treated by the society in some way. An out-door officer has cleared the streets of 704 beggars, and 12,309 visits to or on behalf of the poor have been made. The registration bureau shows 100,661 reports concerning 71,332 families of 285,000 persons involved in mendicancy or pauperism, more than a quarter of a million, or equal to St. Paul and Minneapolis combined. 23,785 houses are registered as the abodes of these dependants. Supposing these houses to have a frontage of only twenty feet each, they would make a street nearly forty-five miles long, with houses on both sides. Persistent efforts year after year are gradually revealing the factors, but the problem of the poor in New York is yet unsolved; yet progress is being made, for 974 dependent families were restored to citizenship during the three-quarters of a year which the report treats. At the estimate usually taken by economists as to the difference in value to the community of a dependent and a contributing member, the value of this gain is

\$487,000, or 7,000 per cent. of the cost of the society. Supposing that the beggars cleared from the street only averaged \$1 each per day (a very low average), the amount saved to the charitable by the suppression of nine hundred frauds and beggars is in one year \$328,000. The cost of the society compared with these figures is infinitesimal.

Let us now look at the state of things in a smaller and easily managed place. Newport, R.I., is by no means a perfect community, fluctuating seriously in its population between the seasons; yet the experience of seven years of organization is very instructive and hopeful. Beginning in 1879, the idea of Charity Organization was at once accepted by every private relieving agency and the Overseer of the Poor. The registration of the city poor was made, and 323 dependent families found. In 1885, the number of the same class was 148. The yearly report shows a thorough knowledge of the poor in the city. In the words of the secretary, "We know the poor, and they know us." "We have never had any opposition. The City Council has always accepted our suggestions, and has done whatever we have asked it in the way of relief," etc. There are no street beggars in Newport. The difficulty of the poor in Newport is simple and easily understood. Lack of employment in winter is the main cause; after that, the drunkenness of a few heads of families. The drunkards are known and numbered. There are twenty-two of them, and they have forty-nine children. To take care of these children without encouraging their parents in their vice is the problem of the Charity Organization Society of Newport. There were some drunkards without children. There are none now. They must either go to work or go to jail.

A city where organization is complete, where the problem is manageable, where the field is covered, shows what may be done in other places. Like sanitation, water supply, and most other municipal problems, there are difficulties in organizing the charity of large cities, such as small ones do not know. But no one doubts for a moment that perfect sanitary arrangements are possible in a large city, with sufficient intelligence, wealth, and public spirit on the part of the citizens. So no one need despair of the practically complete organization of the charities of every city, even the largest, as soon as the citizens are sufficiently awake to its importance and its advantages. What has been already done has shown the possibilities of more. Our successes in the past should encourage us to greater exertion and success in the future, until the societies of the larger

cities may say, as does Newport to-day, "We know the poor, and they know us." When that condition shall have been reached, the hopeful upbuilding work of organized charity may be carried out with greater success than now. As the repressive work becomes less and less onerous, as it will in proportion to the perfection it attains, the energies of the societies may be more entirely turned in the direction of constructive work; and great achievements may be hoped for. The number rescued from pauperism will grow with increasing rapidity, and the conditions of life will become more tolerable for the very poor, since time and energy will be brought to bear upon such subjects as "The Homes of the Poor," "Sanitary Arrangements," "Food of the Masses," "Health Resorts," "Popular Amusements," and other reforms which we now see possible, but have neither time nor strength to devote to them.

PERCENTAGE OF CASES FOUND

	Worthy of Continuous Relief.	Worthy of Temporary Relief.	Needing Work rather than Relief.	Unworthy.
Indianapolis, Ind., . . . . .	3	27.5	25.5	42
Louisville, Ky., . . . . .	4.5	27.5	28	40
Washington, D.C., . . . . .	6	18.3	32	42
New York, N.Y., . . . . .	6.4	24.4	52.5	17
Detroit, Mich., . . . . .	8	20	18	10
Taunton, Mass., . . . . .	9	22	60	9
Kansas City, Mo., . . . . .	10	*75	50	25
Minneapolis, Minn., . . . . .	10	40	26	24
New Brunswick, N.J., . . . . .	10	25	45	20
Boston, Mass., . . . . .	11	20	52	17
Baltimore, Md., . . . . .	12.5	27.5	28.5	27.3
New Haven, Conn., . . . . .	18	12	46	24
Fitchburg, Mass., . . . . .	25	70	.....	5
Newport, R.I., . . . . .	33	18	28	20
Salem, N.J., . . . . .	38	*50	50	4
Syracuse, N.Y., . . . . .	40	20	15	25
Cambridge, Mass., . . . . .	50	*75	50	10

\* Some of these percentages are evidently recounted in one, if not two, of the other classes.

## SCHEMES FOR THE SELF-HELP OF THE POOR.

THE FITCH CRÈCHE AND THE LABOR BUREAU OF THE  
CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY OF BUFFALO.

BY NATHANIEL S. ROSENAU.

A short time ago, a newspaper of Buffalo headed an article on the Charity Organization Society "The Society for Self-help." How well we deserve this title must appear from the success of those enterprises which tend to make self-help possible.

A society which confines itself to the dreary and thankless tasks of investigation and registration must indeed be cold and heartless. To preach to the poor the first commandment of scientific charity, "Thou shalt not beg," and to the rich the second, "Thou must not give to the able-bodied," may be wise in the light of past experience; but what shall the poor man do if he may not beg and the rich may not give? We must not bid him retire to his miserable tenement to await the death that comes of starvation, for the new charity does not destroy alone. When its mandate is heard and heeded, it comes forward with a new form of charity, a device that will help, that will strengthen instead of wasting energy, that will build character instead of destroying it, that will make a citizen instead of a pauper; in short, a device for self-help.

In enumerating the different schemes which tend to build up the poor, they fall, naturally, into four groups: first, the bread-winning schemes,—the *crèche*, the labor bureau, the wood-yard, and the laundry; second, measures for the maintenance of health,—proper municipal regulations, model tenements, provident dispensaries, district nursing, sick-diet kitchens; third, schemes to promote thrift,—coal-savings societies, penny banks, and savings and loan associations; fourth, educational schemes,—cooking-schools and kitchen-gardens, schools for domestics, evening classes, temperance billiard halls, music, free reading-rooms and lecture courses.

To touch even lightly upon all these measures which come directly within the scope of scientific charity would occupy more time than can be allowed a single paper. I am compelled, therefore, to confine myself to two which are intimately allied, and which are in most complete and successful operation under the auspices of the Charity Organization Society of Buffalo.

1. The *crèche*. How to help the many women who crowd to it for assistance, who have no possible bread-winners in their families

besides themselves, and are themselves prevented from earning a livelihood by a family of children who need motherly care, is one of the problems that frequently confronts a Charity Organization Society. Its solution is found in the *crèche*.

The Fitch *crèche* of Buffalo was projected in 1879. While looking for a building lot in a suitable location, the committee in charge was no less astounded than gratified to receive as a gift, from Mr. Benjamin Fitch, of New York City, a house and lot to be used for the proposed *crèche*. The building is situated on a quiet, pleasant street, just on the borders of a district inhabited by the poorest of the Buffalo poor, far enough away to be in no danger of contamination from a bad neighborhood, and yet accessible to the limited tenement-house population of the city.

Various entertainments, such as private theatricals, charity balls, and dolls' parties, supplemented by individual subscriptions, raised in twelve months about \$7,500, sufficient to repair and equip the building and to pay the running expenses for more than a year.

The doors of the *crèche* were opened Nov. 8, 1880. The record of attendance for the first twelve months was as follows: November, 39; December, 81; January, 68; February, 76; March, 71; April, 161; May, 321; June, 325; July, 284; August, 411; September, 255; October, 376,—a total of 2,468.

At first, it was difficult to induce poor women to take advantage of the *crèche*. But painstaking work on the part of visitors, and the thrift of the children who did attend, finally succeeded in disarming prejudice; and the total of admissions increased to 4,511 in the second year, and to 6,578 in the third, at about which number it has remained, indicating that this is the maximum attendance to be expected from the district reached.

The attendance varies with the different seasons. On some of the inclement days of winter, we have had as few as four admissions; while in May and October, the months for house-cleaning, when plenty of work is to be obtained, the number sometimes reaches sixty.

While we have always considered a kindergarten to be an essential part of the *crèche*, we were not able to open one until two years ago. Children who idled away the morning hours formerly now receive instruction, according to the system of Froebel, from nine o'clock until one. The interest of the children and their progress in knowledge and deportment have demonstrated that a kindergarten is a necessary adjunct of a *crèche*, and will well repay all efforts and expenditures made in connection with it.



We admit children of any age up to four years, dividing them into two classes, those under two years being termed infants, and those over two years children.

The Fitch *crèche* is a building of four stories. In the basement are the matron's office, kitchen,—connected by a dumb waiter with the floors above,—laundry, reception-room for children, a small dining-room for the help, closets, and store-rooms. The entire second floor is devoted to the children. On it are a large school-room, a play-room, dormitory, bath-room, wardrobe, dining-room, closet, and water-closets. The third floor constitutes the infants' department, and consists of a nursery, dormitory, bath-room, closet, and water-closets. The fourth floor is given up to the infirmary and sleeping-rooms for the help.

The dormitories are furnished with iron cribs, each provided with a hair mattress, a feather pillow, a rubber sheet, two cotton sheets, a blanket, and a counterpane. The nursery has swinging iron cradles on fixed standards, which are provided with muslin curtains in addition to the bedding of the cribs. The nursery is also provided with a pound, a portion of the floor about five by six feet, enclosed by a stout wooden railing and carpeted with a soft quilt, in which the infants are placed when awake, to roll about as much as they please, secure from harm.

A price of fifteen dollars was placed on each crib and cradle; and many were taken by individual ladies and small clubs, who then furnished them. Each is named after some flower, whose representation hangs on the wall above it; and many sets of bedding are embroidered with the names or representations of the designating blossoms.

Each bath-room contains three small stationary bath-tubs, with hot and cold water faucets. A row of numbered hooks extends around the room, one belonging to each child, on each of which hang a towel, comb, and wash-rag or sponge, which are used only for the child to whom the hook belongs.

The ventilated closets are connected with an air-shaft, through which a current of fresh air passes continually, thoroughly airing anything that may be hanging in them.

The infirmary is a cheerful room, in an isolated position, which is always ready for a child which may become ill suddenly, and whom it will not be safe to move. But thus far, fortunately, we have not been called upon to use it.

The regular service of the *crèche* consists of a

Matron, at . . . . .	\$30 per month,
Cook, " . . . . .	13 " "
Laundress, at . . . . .	13 " "
One nurse, " . . . . .	13 " "
" " " . . . . .	12 " "
" " " . . . . .	9 " "

All these live at the *crèche*. During about six months of the year, we add two nurse girls to this force. A seamstress is also employed occasionally to assist the matron in making uniforms.

The expenses of the *crèche* for the year 1885, during which there were 6,373 admissions, were \$2,148.88, sub-divided as follows:

Wages, . . . . .	\$1,138.75
Supplies for table, . . . . .	798.53
Clothing and furniture, . . . . .	63.51
Gas and fuel, . . . . .	120.59
Incidentals, . . . . .	27.50

These figures are exclusive of repairs to the building, heating, and the expense of the kindergarten. The cost of each admission was about thirty-four cents.

We charge a daily fee of five cents for each child, which the matron is permitted to remit when she thinks circumstances warrant. The fees collected during 1885 amounted to \$296.60. This fee is asked for two reasons: first, to eliminate, so far as possible, any idea that permission to leave a child at the *crèche* is a charity; second, as a preventive measure, to keep a mother from bringing her child unless she has work for the day.

The attendance is secured, mainly, by the personal work of the agents of the Charity Organization Society; but, frequently, we have unsolicited applications from mothers.

No child is admitted until a thorough investigation of the parent has been made, and the proper district committee of the Charity Organization Society has passed upon the application. The points we insist upon are: first, the parent must have been a resident of the city at least one year, unless we are satisfied that she is unlikely to become a city charge; second, there must be no bread-winner in the family who should relieve the mother of the necessity of working; third, freedom from all contagious troubles, certified by our attending physician; fourth, legitimacy.

As to the last point, it seems cruel, in many instances, to refuse admission to an illegitimate child; but, like most people in their station, the mothers who use the *crèche* are extremely sensitive, and we are convinced that the admission of one child born out of

lawful wedlock would seriously impair the usefulness of the institution. This question has given us much trouble. The only solution of the problem seems to lie in placing the illegitimate in an institution. But most of the erring mothers are unable to pay board. Consequently, this course involves the absolute surrender of the child, to which many of the erring mothers, filled with a pardonable affection for their offspring, will not consent. Here, then, is a delicate matter. To help the parent back to the path of virtue she must be afforded a means of earning an honest livelihood. She can earn nothing unless the child is provided for during the day. To place it in the *crèche* means alienation of the larger number of lawful mothers; while to open a *crèche* especially for illegitimates is to brand and blight the lives of the little unfortunates who must, at best, go through life under a deep shadow, for which they are not responsible.

The *crèche* is under the immediate management of a committee of the council of the Charity Organization Society. Having a matron on whose prudence they place great reliance, they leave nearly all the details of management entirely in her hands; and this policy has resulted in harmony and economy.

The *crèche* is ready for the child at seven o'clock in the morning. The little one is brought into the reception-room, where it is taken from the mother by a kind nurse. It goes to the bath-room, where its clothing is entirely removed and hung in the ventilated closet. A bath follows, after which the uniform of the *crèche* is donned; and the child finds its way to the play-room, where there are plenty of toys for its amusement. Breakfast is ready at eight o'clock; and play follows until nine, when the cheerful good-morning of the kindergartner calls the little one to more serious yet very pleasant occupations. At eleven o'clock dinner is served, and then kindergarten again until one. Then there is a romp in the open air, if the weather permits, and a nap, if the little head be tired. At four o'clock, after face and hands have been washed, supper is eaten, when the little one is dressed to wait the coming of mother, brother, or sister, to take it to its home.

We take particular pride in the fact that, owing to scrupulous medical examinations and the great care taken in handling the children, though our total number of admissions now exceeds thirty thousand, we have not had a single serious epidemic of zymotic disease.

The results obtained from the *crèche*, aside from the greatest of all, — making mothers independent of alms, — are many. Cleanliness, insisted upon from the beginning, soon becomes second nature to

the child, and from the child is not long in spreading to the home. Good, wholesome food, and plenty of it, has many times redeemed from ill health and apparent early death some little child, puny and weak from insufficient nourishment. Association with many children has cured morbid dispositions; and care on the part of the nurses has created good manners, orderly natures, and self-reliance, and suppressed quarrelsome dispositions. These results are apparent in a most cursory examination of the children, and they demonstrate, beyond question, the usefulness of what frequently is called "the best charity in Buffalo." To this proud position, it has strong claims; for not only is it an important factor in suppressing pauperism, but also in preventing its appearance in future generations.

2. The labor bureau. But, if we provide a place for the children, it is extremely necessary that the mothers, unable at first to find work for themselves, should be provided with employment that will enable them to earn a livelihood. For this purpose, we established our labor bureau.

Applications for washerwomen, house-cleaners, and laundresses, are received at the offices of the society and the *crèche* by mail, telephone, or in person, and are supplied by the employés in charge with women according to their needs. So far as the women were concerned, this plan worked well. Applications were numerous, but so were complaints. The low idea of moral responsibility prevailing among the women frequently led them to abandon places far from their homes without reporting to us. Others went, but performed their work in a slovenly manner or were insolent in their behavior. Naturally, the bureau rapidly lost caste; and it became necessary to place some system in operation to correct the abuses. Hence, in January, 1885, the following plan was adopted. When a woman is sent out from any of our offices, she takes with her this card:—

## CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY.

This card is intended as a PROTECTION to all who obtain employees of the C. O. S.  
Please fill it out, enclose it in the envelope, seal it, and return it to bearer.

Employee,.....	Record No.....
Employer,.....	
Residence,.....	
Amount of work given,.....	
Is the place permanent?.....	
Amount paid,.....	
Was the work satisfactory?.....	
Date,.....	
Signature,.....	

which is enclosed in an envelope, of which the following is a facsimile:—

## CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY.

*The bearer must return the enclosed card to*

The office of District No.....

*or she will receive no more employment from this Society.*

*The card is designed to assist the C. O. S. in keeping a record of its work.  
Employers are requested to help us by returning it properly filled out.*

The information obtained from the returned cards is kept on cards like the following:—

Dist.... **LABOR RECORD—CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY.**

Name,..... Record No.....

EMPLOYER.	DATE.	Am't of Labor.	Am't Paid.	Nature of Employ.	REMARKS.

which are on file at the district offices, each woman who is on the labor record having a card.

The following table gives a good idea of the first year's results:—

Total number of cards issued, . . . . .	950
Number returned, . . . . .	751
Days' work provided, . . . . .	1,381½
Amount of earnings, . . . . .	\$1,787.35
Permanent places provided, . . . . .	410
Temporary places, . . . . .	341
Satisfactory, . . . . .	738
Unsatisfactory, . . . . .	13
Cards not returned, . . . . .	199

It will be observed that the entire results of the bureau cannot be given, because, when a place becomes permanent, we keep no further track of it. Taking six months as the average duration of such situations, and three-quarters of a day per week as the average time of employment, we may compute that 7,687½ days' work, in addition to the figures given above, was provided. This amount of labor, at the compensation of one dollar per day, the lowest rate paid, would yield \$7,687.50, and bring the grand total of the earnings of the women to the large sum of \$9,474.85, without taking into account what was earned on the 199 cards not returned.

When we realize the truth of Victor Hugo's words, "All the vagabondage of the world begins in neglected childhood," we will also realize that the beginning of work for the actual prevention of pauperism lies among the children. To build up in them ideas of order, of cleanliness, and of thrift; to save them from the neglect of squalid homes; to keep them from the highways and the gutters; and, above all, to remove from their lives the taint of beggary, the disgrace of municipal relief, which, in the light of modern experience, is a moral disease, more contagious than any known to medicine,—is to build a future generation, self-reliant, cleanly, and thrifty, which will not require alms, which will not need Charity Organization Societies, which will travel the road paved for it in its younger days,—the road to independent citizenship.

To these ends, the *crèche* and the labor bureau are all-important factors. We, in Buffalo, are satisfied that no other charities have helped so far toward their consummation.

Appended are the rules governing the *crèche*.

#### DRESS USED AT THE CRECHE.

I. Infants from three to six months: white flannel roller, white Canton flannel chemise, long white flannel petticoat, long pink print dress.

II. Children from six months to two years: white Canton flannel chemise, white Canton flannel waist, short white flannel petticoat, short white cotton petticoat, short pink print dress.

III. Children from two to four years: Canton flannel chemise, Canton flannel waist, white cotton drawers, blue flannel petticoat, blue jean petticoat, blue gingham dress.

#### DIET.

I. Infants from three weeks to six months are fed cornstarch or finely rolled crackers and milk from the bottle, with a little lime-water added in summer; also beef or mutton broth.

II. Children from six months to two years: breakfast, rolled crackers and milk. Dinner, mutton broth or beef tea and cornstarch. Supper, rolled crackers and milk.

III. Children from two to four years: breakfast, bread and milk. Dinner, roast beef or beefsteak, mashed potatoes, and bread and butter; dessert, rice, cornstarch, bread pudding, or fruits in season. Poultry is sometimes substituted for meat. Supper, bread and butter, with syrup or apple sauce.

#### RULES FOR THE FITCH CRECHE OF THE CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY.

No person employed in the institution, in any capacity whatsoever, shall use his or her position for purposes of proselytism or spiritual



instruction.—Art. XXXIV. of the Constitution of the Charity Organization Society.

1. Nurses must be ready to receive children at quarter to seven each morning.

2. Each infant shall be provided with two feeding-bottles, the one not in use to be kept in clean cold water, after having been thoroughly cleansed.

3. Each child shall be provided with separate towel, sponge, and comb; also, with bowl, mug, plate, and spoon.

4. Each child, on its admission, shall be thoroughly washed and dressed in clothing belonging to the institution, its own clothing being placed in a bag provided, and hung in the air clothes shaft.

5. The greatest care shall be exercised in receiving children each day, so that no case of ophthalmia or infectious skin disease shall be admitted.

6. If, during the day, any child shall be found with any symptoms of measles, fever, or whooping-cough, or other infectious disease, the nurse shall instantly communicate with the matron, who will prepare a room for its reception, after which the cot, with the bedding and clothing, shall be sent to the laundry to be disinfected.

7. Soiled linen and everything offensive shall be removed immediately, and a solution of carbolic acid shall be used freely on the floors, also for purposes of cleaning and purification, the carbolic acid to be in charge of the nurse, and to be used by her only.

8. No child shall be allowed to sleep anywhere except in its cot, great care being always taken that the safety-belt is securely fastened.

9. No servant shall occupy herself with working or reading during the hours of attendance, as the children require all care and attention possible.

10. The nurse is requested to see that the food sent up is sufficient, and, if any child is unable to eat the food provided, to at once send down for what she deems suitable.

11. All are requested to speak kindly and lovingly to the children, and to make the place bright and homelike.

It is the duty of the matron to see that these rules are strictly carried out.

## INDIVIDUALITY IN THE WORK OF CHARITY.

BY GEORGE B. BUZELLE.

Our cities are, and long have been, full of benevolent societies and institutions. We have a vast array of machinery for the production of philanthropic results. To construct and maintain this machinery, money, and values greater than the value of money, have been freely used. And yet the results produced do not always improve our brother man, do not always improve even his condition; and the really beneficent results accomplished are painfully insufficient.

Whatever remote errors may have conduced to this situation, one present error is a prominent cause. Our average good citizen makes a liberal gift to a benevolent society or institution; and, when his receipt has been filed and the gift has been appreciatively mentioned in the morning papers, our citizen is apt to feel that his duty is done, that his obligation to lend a hand is discharged, that the society or institution which has received his money has assumed his responsibility in regard to those of whom he speaks, in a far-off, generic way, as—the poor. Gross as this error is, its frequency compels the reiteration of the truth, trite though it be, that really charitable work is not the work of a body of philanthropic people or of any mechanism which they may devise, but is the work of the individual. Even the relation established between the man who is to be helped and the society or institution which exists to help him must be carefully guarded by the individual friend, or, as we have been painfully taught, through this relation comes not help, but harm. A recent visitor said to Miss Octavia Hill, the best friend the poor of London ever had, "The question upon which I seek light is not how to construct a benevolent society or institution, but how to connect the society or institution with the individual for whom it exists." The instant reply of Miss Hill was, "That is *the* question." For the solution of this question, experience has contributed a few instructive successes and many instructive failures. It is saying less than experience warrants, to say that the usefulness of the benevolent society or institution depends, absolutely, upon the work of the individual. It is but a stony-hearted mothering which the institution can give to its child. If the light and warmth of love come into the crowded loneliness which surrounds the institution child, they come from some *one* loving heart. The poor man has little faith in the benevolence of the

benevolent organization. He is likely to act upon the theory that, whether corporations have or have not souls, the benevolent organization has no heart. Naturally, he distrusts overtures from such a source. The plan for his benefit which he will consider, the advice which he may follow, is that offered by one who has proved a friend in need. This is partly as it should be; for the case of one who is content to be a "beneficiary" in the conventional sense, the institutionalized dependant, is one of which there is least hope. The benevolent society may compel certain conditions which favor right development, and may restrain or prevent hurtful conditions. It may wield a mighty power for the common welfare; but the power under which a human life is made clean and strong is the power of an earnest, devoted, personal friend.

Charitable institutions, societies, or appliances of whatever name, are to be used by the individual who works in the spirit of charity as palette and chisel are used by the artist. They are helpful as a base of supplies is helpful to the soldier at the front. Supplies are important; yet battles are not won by the commissariat, nor even by the organization of the forces engaged. The issue of every strife against wrong is in the hands of the individual at the front. With few, if any, exceptions, the benevolent organization, however rich in patronage and resources, reaches its highest efficiency when all its resources are held subservient to the work of the individual worker. This truth is too often reversed in its application. It may be that each of us knows some one whom God has called to the help of a debased life, close at hand, but whose thought and time and energy are consumed by the exactions of an institution routine, the adding of columns of institution figures, the computing of institution tithes of mint and cumin, whose life is absorbed by the institution, while the vital work, which is the reason for the institution's existence, is not done, and the opportunity which comes but once goes by unused. The great question which we have at heart is not radically a question of money or buildings or means of any kind. It is a question of devoted, personal service.

Yet it does not follow that the individual worker should work alone. Counsel, the interchange of thought and question and comradeship which grows from sharing in contests which result sometimes in defeat, sometimes in hard won achievement, are among the experiences and compensations of the individual worker, which the Charity Organization movement has recognized in the District Conference of Friendly Visitors.

I have said that charitable work, in the best sense, must be done by the individual. There is urgent reason for considering the correlative truth that this work must be done *for* the individual.

In a late private letter, the editor of a foreign journal of philanthropy writes, "We are in danger of losing the individual in the mass." It is a humiliating fact that the waste and disaster which have followed attempts to deal with humanity as a mass have not taught their legitimate lesson. With us, as in other lands, some relics remain of the grotesque misconception of charity which classed all the poor in two great masses, the "worthy" and the "unworthy," issued its decree that "the worthy shall have a dole and the unworthy shall have none," and ended there the whole duty of man, as to charity. It may be that we have yet to learn, as we have not learned, the significance of the truth that, if the individual is lost, all is lost.

But meantime, also, we are learning. Once, some of us would have undertaken to arrange all the human family, according to intellect, development, merit, and demerit, in accurate divisions and subdivisions, each with a label, ready for indexing and filing away. Some of us would not undertake it now. Classifications of our fellow-men are apt to prove unsatisfactory under the tests of experience and acquaintance with the individual. The poor, and those in trouble worse than poverty, have not in common any type of physical, intellectual, or moral development, which would warrant an attempt to group them as a class. In all respects, they are as unlike as members of the family of man can be. Infinitely diverse victims are afflicted by infinitely diverse evils. An effort to remove or lessen the evils is likely to be a wasted effort, unless it be accurately directed to a clearly defined object. We have no time for schemes of indefinite object or of vague application. Each case is a special case, demanding special diagnosis, keenest differentiation of features, and most intense concentration of thought and effort. If one of us would do what can be done for our brother who is in distress, there is for us for the time but one class,—that which includes our brother; and there is in the universe but one representative of the class,—that is, himself.

We may share in plans as wide as the needs of our fellow-men; but, if our effort elicit a response, it is the individual who must respond. Through the individual, the wider result must be reached. Our work is, therefore, difficult as no other work is. In his own domain,—that is, in himself,—the individual is supreme. If he does

not govern himself, the attempt of society to govern him is but a makeshift, and can accomplish but a negative good for society or for him. We may aid him to govern himself, removing that which shuts out light from his understanding, setting motives before him; but we are bound always to respect the dignity with which he is invested as a self-governing being. However efficient our service may be, it is a service of help. It must not trench upon the freedom or responsibility of our brother whom we would help. He must be the principal in action, in his own behalf. We cannot fight his battles for him. He must be the arbiter of his own destiny. He must choose, though he have little discernment. However vacillating he may be, he must decide. He must will, however feeble his will may be. Staff and crutches cannot walk for the patient. We may prop and support and remove obstructions; but he must walk, if walking be achieved.

The work which charity has bidden us undertake, while it is practically unlimited in its scope and its demands, is a work which can only be done at its best by the individual and for the individual. Our methods must differ. Our fields lie far apart. But always this truth holds: that what one can do for one includes the most and the best that can be done for the human family by its members.

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## TRAMPERY:

### ITS CAUSES, PRESENT ASPECTS, AND SOME SUGGESTED REMEDIES.

BY W. L. BULL.

In consonance with the spirit of the resolution offered at the last National Conference,

Whereas it is the sense of this Conference that the tramp evil is rapidly assuming such proportions as to make it imperative that some means should be devised by which the evil may be eradicated,—

*Be it resolved*, That the whole subject of tramping and vagrancy, with special reference to its effects in rural districts, be referred to the Standing Committee on Pauperism, for a thorough examination into its causes, and for suggestions as to its remedy,—the result of the same to be referred to the next annual Conference,

and at the solicitation and with the intelligent and hearty co-operation of the efficient Chairman of the Committee on Organization of Charities, the writer has been enabled to gather statistics which he hopes may prove valuable information, and the basis of

further inquiries into a subject as important as any that can engage the attention of this Conference.

In furtherance of this object, soon after the adjournment of the Washington Conference, a circular was sent to various charitable societies and organizations, public officials, and prominent philanthropists, throughout the United States, requesting answers to a list of questions which it was thought would best gain the desired information.

I therefore ask your attention to what should more appropriately be called a *synopsis of reports* rather than an original essay on "Trampery: Its Causes, Present Aspects, and Some Suggested Remedies."

I have also deemed it wise to allow the reports to speak for themselves, in the main, so far at least as the first two divisions of the title—the causes and present aspects of trampery—are concerned, reserving to myself the right to criticise their statements, and, if erroneous, to modify their conclusions.

One hundred and thirty of these reports have been returned to me. Four of them arrived too late to be embodied in this summary. They would in no way, however, have affected the result.

The reports represent thirty States, two Territories, and the District of Columbia. The eight States not represented are Rhode Island, Maryland, West Virginia, South Carolina, Florida, Texas, Tennessee, and Arkansas, three of these probably not being perceptibly affected by this evil.

The circular—a copy of which I hold in my hand—reads as follows:—

The Committee on Organization of Charity desires to collect information as to tramps and vagrants. Will you kindly answer the questions below as carefully as possible, returning this form in the enclosed envelope, without delay?

*N.B.*—If not able to answer the questions to your own satisfaction, you will confer a favor on the Committee by handing the form to some one in your neighborhood who will do so.

*Name, Address, and Official Position of Person reporting.*

1. *Is the amount of trampery in your neighborhood Increasing, Stationary, or Diminishing?*
2. *About what per cent. of tramps are, apparently, genuine workingmen in search of employment?*
3. *To what nationalities do the tramps chiefly belong, and about what percentage of each?*
4. *What, if any, methods are employed to regulate the evil? and what has been their result?*
5. *If your State has passed any laws bearing on the subject, please give a brief outline of their substance?*



6. *What, in your opinion, are the chief causes of trampery?*
7. *What remedy or remedies can you suggest toward the abatement of the evil?*

Additional questions addressed to superintendents of almshouses, chiefs of police, or other officials:—

1. *Have you separate apartments for tramps and vagrants?*
2. *How long do you permit them to stay?*
3. *Do you compel them to work?*
4. *Give total number received in 1884.*
5. *Total number each month of 1884.*

It will readily be perceived at this stage of our knowledge that the replies to questions numbered 1, 2, 3, and 6, respectively, are of the most value. The last question, No. 7, with its solution, of course overshadows in importance all that precedes it; but a complete and, therefore, satisfactory solution it is premature to look for, except on the basis of the information furnished by the answers to the first four questions referred to, which we shall now proceed to examine *seriatim*.

1. Is the amount of trampery in your neighborhood Increasing, Decreasing, or Stationary?

To this question, out of one hundred and twenty-two answers, forty, or nearly four-twelfths, or one-third, reply, Increasing; fifty-two, or a little more than five-twelfths, reply, Decreasing; twenty-six, or more than three-twelfths, or one-fourth, reply, Stationary; four reply, None.

As to the States and sections of country which have sent replies, they are,—the majority of whose reports answer:—

*Increasing*,—New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New Jersey, Alabama, Nevada, California, Oregon,—eight States.\*

*Decreasing*,—Maine, Vermont, New York, Delaware, the District of Columbia, North Carolina, Georgia, Mississippi, Kentucky, Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Iowa, Nebraska, Kansas, Utah.—fifteen States,† the District of Columbia, one Territory.

*Stationary*,—Pennsylvania, Virginia, Ohio, Michigan, Missouri, Colorado, Dakota,—six States‡ and one Territory.

The danger of drawing erroneous conclusions from these reports, and especially from their replies to question 1, is, for several reasons, much greater than might at first sight appear.

In the first place, certain sections and States are much more thoroughly reported than others. Thus, New England sends thirty-seven

\* Three New England, one Middle, one Southern, three Western.

† Two Eastern, two Middle, three Southern, eight Western.

‡ One Middle, one Southern, four Western.

reports, or nearly two-sevenths of the entire number, Massachusetts alone furnishing twenty-four, or nearly one-fifth.

NUMBER OF REPORTS AND NAMES OF STATES SENDING FOUR  
OR MORE REPORTS EACH.

24	Reports from	Massachusetts.
5	"	Connecticut.
9	"	New York.
9	"	New Jersey.
5	"	Pennsylvania.
6	"	Illinois.
5	"	Wisconsin.
4	"	California.
67		

Names of nine States sending three reports each,—New Hampshire, Delaware, North Carolina, Georgia, Mississippi, Ohio, Minnesota, Iowa, Nevada.

While the scarcity of tramps in the South, owing to the impoverished condition of that section, the absence of manufacturing centres, the long distances to be traversed through sparsely settled districts which offer few opportunities for obtaining a meal, and the summary punishment meted out to them when arrested, is anything but an indication of their scarcity elsewhere.

The professional tramp will, especially in summer, avoid the city, and confine himself to the country; and the rural districts most frequented by him do not generally keep any records.

Tramps are more numerous in certain localities than in others; *e.g.*, along the lines of great thoroughfares and in thickly settled, thriving farming communities.

The same individual is also liable to be frequently counted in the course of a year or even of a month, thus unfairly adding to the "Increasing" side of the account.

On the other hand, the "Decreasing" column may unavoidably sanction wrong inferences; for, where tramps' laws are enforced and a record of them kept, the tramp may be driven out of one place only to add to his number in another.

Again, mere declarations as to increase and decrease of themselves prove very little. Thus, a given State sends four reports: increasing, three; decreasing, one. By the method of counting necessarily adopted in the absence of figures, the conclusion inevitably follows that trampery is on the increase in that State. But, when reduced to figures, the three increasing reports might stand for one hundred each, or a total of three hundred; and the one decreasing for five

hundred, or a majority of two hundred. But by far the most fruitful cause of unreliability is the lack of a universal, uniform, and compulsory method of registration in every county, and by every society or organization which has to deal with this class of persons.

As a striking illustration of what I have just said, I have received five reports from the State of Pennsylvania,—two replying, Increasing, two replying, Decreasing, one replying, Stationary, leaving the inference to be drawn that trampery is stationary, as the increasing and decreasing columns just balance each other. I compare this result with the statement in the Annual Report of the Board of Public Charities of the same State, and there I find this astonishing difference: vagrants relieved during the year ending Sept. 30, 1885, total number, 62,082; increase on number of previous year, 19,025; per cent. of increase, 44.19.

These figures in turn are so large as to be manifestly incorrect, many tramps evidently having been counted more than once; while the records of the county and local almshouses for 1885—more accurate than those of any previous year—may have raised the percentage to a much higher degree than the actual number of tramps in former years, if strictly kept, would have warranted.

I must add, by way of explanation, that the term "vagrant" in these reports is used to include the word "tramp,"—another source of confusion that should be avoided, as, technically speaking, a vagrant is a beggar who has a legal residence in the county, and a tramp one who has not. Owing to these difficulties, and to the fact that the causes of trampery remain as potent as ever, and that no general systematic effort has been made to reduce their number, except in localities where the Wayfarers' Lodge system has been established, I am unable to decide whether the conclusion arrived at by a comparison of these reports, that trampery is on the decrease, be correct or not.

Question 2. "About what per cent. of tramps are apparently genuine workingmen in search of employment?"

Out of a total of one hundred and sixteen replies, sixty-six, or about four-sevenths, give ten per cent. and under; and fifty, over ten per cent., or one hundred and two, or more than five-sixths, give fifty per cent. and under as workingmen.

Question 3. "To what nationalities do the tramps chiefly belong, and what percentage of each?"

Out of seventy reports examined, thirty-five, or one-half, reply that fifty per cent. or more are Americans,—a proportion, if correct, as

alarming as it certainly is most unlooked for. Of foreigners, as was to have been expected, the Irish largely predominate over every other race, including Americans; seventy-nine reports, out of a total of one hundred and nine, mentioning the Irish among other nationalities, thirty the Germans, and twenty-four the English,—several specifying two, and others perhaps all, of these nationalities.

The French Canadians are also quite largely represented.

PERCENTAGE OF AMERICANS.

Percentage.		No. of Reports.	
12½ per cent.	= 2 . . . .	Chiefly Americans	= 10
15	= 1 . . . .	Americans and Irish-Americans	= 1
20-30	= 1 . . . .	Irish-Americans	= 2
25	= 4 . . . .	50 per cent. Irish and 50 per cent. Irish-Americans	= 1
30	= 2 . . . .	Chiefly Irish and Irish-Amer'ns	= 1
33½	= 7 . . . .	" " " Americans	= 2
40	= 3 . . . .	75 per cent. Irish; next English	= 1
45	= 4 . . . .	75 per cent. Irish; 25 per cent. other nations	= 1
50	= 12 . . . .	Nearly all Irish	= 1
55	= 1 . . . .	" " " descent	= 1
60	= 1 . . . .	90 per cent. Irish	= 1
66½	= 1 . . . .	Irish and Americans in equal proportions, Germans and Negroes increasing	= 1
75	= 5 . . . .	Chiefly foreigners	= 1
90	= 1 . . . .	Foreigners	= 1
	45		25

35 reports = 50 per cent. and over Americans.

Question 4. "What, if any, methods are employed to regulate the evil, and what has been their result?"

I shall omit the consideration of this question; for whatever there is of value contained in its replies will most likely be found in answer to question 7.

Question 5. "If your State has passed any laws bearing on this subject, please give a brief outline of their substance."

In addition to the various laws or parts of laws referred to, I have personally examined the tramp and vagrant acts of nine States, representing the four chief sections of the country.

The information thus gained, added to the knowledge taught by experience of the practical inoperativeness of most of these laws,—laws most admirably framed, so far as defining an act of tramping or vagrancy, granting the power to arrest, and prescribing the amount

and method of punishment are concerned,—has convinced me that what we need is little, if any, additional criminal legislation, but such laws as shall have for their object the reformation of the offender by compelling him to work, and, by utilizing his labor in such a way as to make it beneficial alike to himself and the State, shall encourage him to become self-supporting. Solely repressive measures I have but little faith in, the history of the past five hundred years tending to show their general futility, unless coupled with humane and remedial ones.

Question 6. "What, in your opinion, are the chief causes of trampery?"

We have now for our consideration what seems to me a more important question than any that has preceded it, because upon the breadth and wisdom of its replies depends to a great extent the solution of the problem.

One hundred and sixteen reports have sent replies attributing trampery to some *forty-seven different causes*, varying from the elegant, if somewhat mystical, language whose philosophic tone betrays its New England origin,—for who except a veritable Yankee and a disciple of Emerson could have invented such a phrase, "Existing type of civilization in its estimate of wealth and resulting conditions"?—and the attempted scientific explanation from Nebraska,—"*Inherited mental conditions requiring a master mind*,"—to the forcible, if unpolished, "*Pure cussedness*" of the Dakotian and Californian, or, in the more orthodox opinion of the man from Maine,—the source of all evil, "*The devil*."

A list of these causes, without any attempt to arrange them alphabetically or in numerical sequence, I herewith insert, calling your attention to those the most generally acknowledged as well as the most unique and suggestive:—

Drink, lack of employment, laziness, war, example, ignorance, lack of home training, dime novels, tobacco, discontent, poverty, shiftlessness, vice, love of roving, heredity, indiscriminate almsgiving or false charity, inability, dishonesty, strikes, depravity, disappointment, worthlessness, immigration, existing type of civilization, improvidence, force of habit, low wages, loss of self-respect, fees made by officers and magistrates, aggregation of capital in manufactures, the use of machinery in agriculture and manufactures, socialistic ideas, overpopulation, lack of manhood, lack of a trade, our jail system, imbecility, defective system of education in our public schools, hospitality of jails and almshouses, uncomfortable homes, high temper, industrial

causes, ex-convicts, specialization of labor, lack of Wayfarers' Lodges, Chinese, the devil.

By a careful comparison of these causes, I think you will perceive that they can readily be condensed into eight general causes, which include the more special ones:—

	No. of Reports.
(1) Laziness, . . . . .	= 69
(2) Drink and vice (36 + 10), . . . . .	= 46
(3) Lack of employment, . . . . .	= 32
(4) Depravity and worthlessness (8 + 4), . . . . .	= 12
(5) Roving disposition, . . . . .	= 12
(6) Indiscriminate almsgiving, . . . . .	= 10
(7) Lack of home training, . . . . .	= 9
(8) Immigration, . . . . .	= 8

These again may be subdivided into subjective and objective causes, according as they are inherent in and have been encouraged by the individual, and for which he is immediately responsible, or are due to his environment or those social conditions which tend to retard his normal development, and for which society is more or less accountable.

- (1) = Subjective Cause.  
 (4) = " "  
 (5) = " "

- (2) = Objective Cause.  
 (3) = " "  
 (6) = " "  
 (7) = " "  
 (8) = " "

OR

- (1) = Primary Cause.  
 (3) = " "  
 (4) = " "  
 (5) = " "

- (2) = Secondary Cause.  
 (6) = " "  
 (7) = " "  
 (8) = " "

You will observe that this long list of causes, like that of the historian Gibbon's famous five causes for the success of Christianity, is made up chiefly of secondary rather than primary ones. The two questions at the basis of the problem still remain unanswered.

1. Why should the peculiar phase of pauperism called trampery exist at any time or place?

2. Why does pauperism assume this phase at certain periods, and not at others?

If the speaker be correct in assuming that question No. 2 is also the declaration of a fact in an interrogative form, then he would also be right in his conclusions that trampery, as a special phase of pauperism, is due largely to what he has called objective causes,—causes for which the circumstances of the time and the place are to a great degree responsible; realizing of course that, without the subjective



conditions of laziness, depravity, and a roving disposition unrestrained by a proper home training, the objective causes would have comparatively little effect.

Thus, if in England, prior to the reign of Elizabeth, "pauperism, then known only under the forms of begging, whether by mendicancy or vagrants, was to a great extent caused, as it certainly was aggravated, by legislation either economically vicious or else directed avowedly against the interests of the working classes"; if it was greatly augmented by the indiscriminate and lavish almsgiving of individuals and of the Church, which had not yet been taught the vital distinction between a true and false charity; if the dissolution of the monasteries under Henry VIII. was the immediate cause of the sudden increase of vagrancy, and the vast addition to the class known as "sturdy vagabonds" and "valiant beggars"; if the recent increase of trampery in Germany was due chiefly to a long period of industrial depression, and also partly perhaps to her peculiar and arbitrary system of enforced military service at an age when her youth should be busy on the farm and in the workshop rather than in the camp or in the barrack; if trampery in the United States has become formidable only since the late war, and during the past twenty years,—the term "tramp" as applied to the wandering beggar being almost unheard of by the writer when a boy, "stroller" being his most familiar title,—then may we not conclude that there are certain objective or external causes which tend to promote and even propagate trampery, for which society in its complex relationships is responsible, and which to a greater extent than we may be willing to admit we can and ought to control?

May not immigration, the importation of foreign labor, the lack of employment due to overproduction, and resulting sometimes in voluntary cessation from labor (as in strikes), but oftener in enforced idleness (as at present), the lack of proper training, whether in the home, the school, or the workshop, and indiscriminate almsgiving be among the chief causes?

Laziness, the most prolific and perhaps the most fundamental cause, and drink, are, it is true, the most frequently mentioned in the list; but they are the too common causes of pauperism in general to teach any special lesson, except in so far as they are the consequence of cause (6), and demonstrate the folly and danger of indiscriminate almsgiving as well as the necessity of providing work and obliging every applicant to work before receiving aid.

Question 7. "What remedy or remedies can you suggest toward an abatement of the evil?"

From a large number of suggestions, I select a score or more as embracing the rest in substance, and as exhibiting all shades of opinion as to the best method of dealing with tramps,—from that conceived in the same spirit of bloodthirsty vindictiveness as the statute of Richard II., in which whipping, cropping the ear, and hanging were decreed as penalties for different stages of the offence, to that in full unison with the wisely planned, humanity-loving schemes of reform devised by the philanthropists of our own day:—

1. "Promulgation of Christianity, and the religion of Jesus Christ, not only preached and taught, but *lived*."—*Maine*.
2. "The church, Sunday-school, and reform school for the young." . . .
3. "Educate the rising generation to have an aim in life."—*New Hampshire*.
4. "The ideals of the leaders of society must be changed."—*New Hampshire*.
5. "Industrial education in the public schools."—*Kansas*.
6. "Prohibition to be made the law of the United States. Mechanical and agricultural education to go hand in hand with the intellectual in our public schools."—*California*.
7. "Better times. Readjustment of industries, organization of labor, eight-hour movement."—*Indiana*.
8. "Pass laws allowing country and municipal authorities to put the tramp to work on the streets, and enforce them."—*Colorado*.
9. "A system forcing tramps to labor on government work,—on canals, public roadways, waterways, territorial improvements, and under present military force of the United States, who are now idle."—*Illinois*.
10. "Cutting up large tracts of land into small farms. Settling up the country and creating a demand for laborers, and abrogating the treaty with China."—*California*.
11. "Organization of bureaus of employment."—*Louisiana*.
12. "Long periods of imprisonment, with hard labor."—*New Jersey*.
13. "Whipping post."—*Virginia*.
14. "Enforce the law. Compel them to work with ball and chain, if necessary."—*Harrisburg, Pa.*
15. "Refuse to give at the door."
16. "A lodging-house in every city to supply two meals and to furnish work."—*Nebraska*.
17. "Establish wood-yards and laundries in each town. Refuse to give alms, and send applicants to the proper authorities."—*Connecticut*.
18. "Co-operation of different States in registration." . . . —*Buffalo, N. Y.*
19. "Thorough organization of private charity, restriction of liquor traffic, more severe treatment of habitual offenders."—*Philadelphia, Pa.*

20. "Close all ports to emigrants for a year."—*Massachusetts*.

21. "A head-tax from \$25 to \$50 on immigrants for the next ten years. Revision of school system that would bring education by it to a more practical basis."—*Kingston, N.J.*

All these remedies, with the exception of that relic of the Middle Ages, the whipping post, contain suggestions well worth our consideration, and embody the principles that should govern us in our efforts not only to prevent the spread of this evil, but also to effect its cure. But, if no replies had been received to question 7, the few generally recognized causes of tramperry, to which frequent allusion has been made, would have been amply sufficient to indicate the course of treatment to be pursued in the eradication of this social disease.

The chief cure for the first cause — laziness — is most emphatically *work*; that for drink, *restraint*, whether by high license, prohibitory laws, or other means, it is not necessary to discuss here. The remedy for lack of employment is, of course, *employment*, and for excessive immigration *restriction of immigration*; but to deal with these two aspects of the problem satisfactorily requires a knowledge of the laws of political economy not yet attained by the most learned of sociologists nor the wisest of statesmen, permeated with a spirit of humanity as broad as human nature itself.

When such a condition of things exists as is so forcibly described in a recently published epitome of the First Annual Report of the Commissioner of Labor, compiled after a careful and exhaustive examination into the causes of the present state of industrial depression, both in our own country and in Europe, it is evident that there is a need in the industrial world of a moral reformation in our ways of conducting business as truly as was the need in the Church of the sixteenth century of a religious reformation.

Under the head "The Industrial Depression in the United States," Mr. Wright says: —

"It is undoubtedly true that out of the total number of establishments, such as factories, mines, etc., existing in the country, about five per cent. were absolutely idle during 1885, and that, perhaps, five per cent. more were idle a part of the time, or, for a just estimate, seven and one-half per cent. of the whole number of such establishments were idle or equivalent to idle during the past year. Applying the percentage arrived at (seven and one-half per cent.), we obtain a total of 998,839 as constituting the best statement of the unemployed in the United States during 1885 — meaning by the

unemployed those who under prosperous times would be employed and who in 1885 were seeking employment — that it has been possible for the bureau to make. . . .

"The apparent evils resulting from the introduction of machinery and the consequent subdivision of labor have to a large extent, of course, been offset by advantages gained; but it must stand as a positive statement, which cannot successfully be controverted, that this wonderful introduction and extension of power machinery are one of the prime causes, if not the prime cause, of the novel industrial condition in which the manufacturing nations find themselves. . . .

"The employment of contract labor of foreign importation, and rapid immigration generally, are features which have a positive influence in crippling consuming power. . . . By the census of 1880, the whole number of people engaged in agriculture in the United States was 7,670,493. Into the total number then engaged in agriculture there had been absorbed 812,829 foreign born; that is, the foreign born constituted ten and five-tenths per cent. of the whole number employed in agriculture. The total number employed in the country in manufactures, mechanical and mining industries, was 3,837,112. Into this number had been absorbed 1,225,787 of the foreign born, or thirty-one and nine-tenths per cent. of the whole number. It will be seen at once that the tendency of immigrants is to assimilate with our mechanical industries. This increases the supply of labor in comparison to the demand, lowers wages, contributes to whatever overproduction exists, and cripples most decidedly the consuming power of the whole.

"Legitimate voluntary immigration may be too rapid to enable a country developing its industries to assimilate labor from the outside; but, when immigration becomes a subject of inducement, of contract, for the purpose of displacing a higher grade of labor, the result is indeed pernicious, and all the authority of law should be called in to prevent the continuance of the wrong."

In corroboration of what Mr. Wright says in regard to immigration, I call your attention for a moment to the concise table of statistics compiled by the Secretary of the State Board of Charities of New York, Dr. Hoyt:—

## CENSUS OF 1880.

Paupers in almshouses and poorhouses of the State of New York,	56,057
Paupers native born, . . . . .	21,746
" foreign " . . . . .	34,312

or 1 native pauper to every 176 of native population, and 1 foreign pauper to every 35 of foreign population, or a proportion of foreign paupers to foreign population five times as great as that of native paupers to native population.

As to the three remaining causes,—depravity and worthlessness, a roving disposition, and lack of home training,—the remedies

required are principally moral in their nature, and therefore cannot be laid down in letters of black and white nor in any well-defined plan or system of rules.

But so far as they can be supplemented by an improved system of education in our public schools, such as the introduction of industrial and trade schools,—an improvement doubly needed in a day when the old-time custom of apprenticeship has become almost obsolete,—by which our youth can be taught the true dignity of labor, just so far are we providing a most efficient remedy against what is to me one of the most serious aspects of this evil,—its growth and demoralizing effect among our native born population, and especially the youth of our land.

When thirty-five reports out of a total of one hundred and nine, or nearly one-third, state that Americans compose fifty per cent. or more of the tramp class, and fifteen out of twenty-six reports, mentioning lack of employment as a cause, give the percentage of workmen as not more than twenty-five, then surely the time has come for us, as patriots as well as lovers of our kind, to put forth every effort, not only to curb, but to banish, this evil from our midst.

To accomplish this end, there are at least three remedies I would suggest, premising what I have to say with the conviction that no reform of this character can be effected without the moral as well as the intellectual and physical nature being thoroughly aroused and stimulated:—

*First.* To cut off the basis of our foreign supply, impose a head-tax, say of twenty-five dollars, on every male adult, and of fifty dollars on every family of three or more members, for the next five years.

*Secondly.* To diminish the likelihood of any further increase among Americans, except that which is, perhaps, the unavoidable consequence of the present condition of things, and of the absence, to a great degree, of the spirit of mutual obligation and dependence between employer and employé, and to remove from our youth the temptation to become tramps voluntarily, our legislatures should pass two acts, the one a compulsory education act, the other an act providing for the introduction of manual training into the public schools, in order that every male child may receive, not only an intellectual, but also the rudiments at least of an industrial education.

*Thirdly and lastly.* To break up the system and to redeem the tramp from the thralldom of his unrestrained license to go where he pleases and to do what he likes, as well as to remove temptation from the genuine workingman in search of employment to become

the professional tramp, he must be subjected to the *work test*, and be provided by the State — I use this word as synonymous with public, and not in its political sense — for a definite time with work, to an amount sufficient to remove all excuse as well as necessity for begging, and in a way best calculated to insure at least a partial return for the outlay to the State. If willing to perform additional work over and above the value of his board, he should receive a slight recompense, sufficient to reward him, but by no means to enable him to compete with the laborer or underbid the wages of the actively employed workingman.

To do this, I know of no better plan than *the adoption by the State of the Wayfarers' Lodge system, in conjunction with the maintenance and repairs of the public roads*, with this important distinction, however, that it should be supported by the State as a burden too heavy for private charity to bear, and as an evil too wide-spread for individual benevolence to cope with.

As a member of the committee appointed by the Directors of the Poor Association in my own State to draft a new tramp act to be presented, if it should receive the approval of the Association, to the legislature at its next session, and as the most concise method I can adopt in explanation of the plan, which seems to me the most feasible and practical as well as the most comprehensive in meeting the various requirements of the case, I ask your consideration of this bill, which, I ought to say in passing, has neither as yet been examined nor approved by the other members of the committee, and which, I confess, may not prove adequate to meet the needs of other States.

Suffice it to say, moreover, that it is only the main features of the bill, which will at least indicate its scope, that I present to you, omitting many minor matters of detail exceedingly important in themselves, but unnecessary to refer to here: —

#### AN ACT

To provide for the Temporary Care and Employment of Wayfarers: —

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted, etc.*, That whenever in any county in this Commonwealth twenty or more residents of any borough or township, or of two or more contiguous townships, not exceeding three, who are owners or lessees of real estate, shall petition the Court of Quarter Sessions of the county in which such borough or township or townships are situate for authority to establish and maintain in such borough or township or townships a Wayfarers' Lodge, or place at which homeless or destitute persons may receive food and shelter, it shall be lawful for any judge of said court to make an order authorizing, empowering, and directing the



councils of such borough, and the supervisors of such township or townships, to establish at the most convenient place in such borough or township or townships a Wayfarers' Lodge, at which homeless or destitute persons may be fed and sheltered in return for work which shall be provided by the superintendent or other person or persons having charge of such lodge. Every such petition shall set forth, among other things, the place at which it is desired the Wayfarers' Lodge shall be established, and the maximum cost of establishing the same. And such petition shall be filed in the office of the clerk of the Court of Quarter Sessions at least twenty days before the application is made for the order therein prayed for. The decree of the court allowing the prayer of the petitioners shall state the place at which the Wayfarers' Lodge shall be established, the maximum cost of establishing the same, and the time within which the lodge shall be completed for occupancy and opened for use.

SECT. 2. Each Wayfarers' Lodge established under the provisions of this act shall be conducted under the supervision and control of the borough councils or township supervisors, assisted in the supervision and management by an advisory board of not less than seven members, appointed by the petitioners for the lodge, which board shall have authority to fill vacancies in its membership, perpetually. Said councils or supervisors shall on the nomination of the board of advisors appoint a superintendent, who shall reside at and have charge of the lodge, and shall transact the business thereof. The superintendent shall provide food, fuel, and shelter for the persons applying therefor, and shall provide work at the lodge, in quarries, on streets, roads, highways, or otherwise, and tools, machinery, and other facilities for performing such work. He shall, with the approval of the borough councils or supervisors, employ such assistant or assistants as may be necessary to transact the business of the lodge.

SECT. 3. Whenever any homeless or destitute person shall apply at any Wayfarers' Lodge for food and shelter, it shall be the duty of the person in charge thereof to inform such applicant that he or she will be required to labor in return therefor, to perform work for a space not exceeding one hour and a half for each meal furnished, and one hour and a half for each night's shelter in the lodge, in return for such food and shelter. If any person so applying at the lodge for food or shelter shall refuse to work, or having received food and shelter in any Wayfarers' Lodge shall refuse to perform work as above mentioned, and being physically able to work, it shall be the duty of the superintendent or any other officer of such lodge to cause such person to be brought forthwith before a magistrate or justice of the peace, and upon proof before him that such person on applying at the lodge for food or shelter has refused to work or has received food and shelter in such lodge and has refused to perform work for the time as herein provided in return therefor, and is physically able to perform the work demanded, and that such person had notice that he or she would be required to perform work in return for food and shelter, such refusal shall be evidence of vagrancy; and such magistrate or justice of the peace may commit such person as a vagrant, in accordance with the provisions of the act of Assembly "To define and suppress vagrancy," of May 8, A.D. 1876, or as a "tramp," in accordance with the provisions of the act of Assembly "To define and punish tramps," April 30, A.D. 1879.

SECT. 4. The supervisors of any township in or for which a Wayfarers' Lodge has been established shall make use of all stone that shall be suitably broken by persons fed and sheltered at the lodge, upon the roads of the township, and shall

cause to be employed, so far as it may be useful, the labor of persons fed and sheltered at the lodge in maintaining and repairing the public roads.

SECT. 5. The councils of said boroughs and the supervisors of said township or townships shall have power, and they are hereby directed and required, whenever the court shall so order as aforesaid, to make provision to comply with such order, and for the purpose to purchase or lease land and to erect thereon buildings, or to lease suitable premises, and to establish a Wayfarers' Lodge, and suitably furnish the same, at a cost not to exceed the sum mentioned in the order of the court; and they shall advertise for proposals for such buildings and furniture, and the contracts for building and also for furniture shall be awarded to the lowest and best bidder. They shall determine the salary to be paid to the superintendent at a rate not to exceed the sum of two hundred and fifty dollars a year, exclusive of his maintenance as a resident at the lodge, and shall fix the wages to be paid to his assistant or assistants and provide for the payment of the same. The cost of establishing such lodge and of maintaining and providing for the same, as well as such salaries and wages, shall be paid one-half by said borough or township or townships, and one-half by said county; and all bills, debts, or liabilities, incurred or contracted in pursuance hereof by councils, supervisors, and superintendents, shall be paid in the manner now provided by law for the payment of bills, debts, or liabilities contracted in the maintenance and repair of streets and roads in boroughs and townships; and all bills, debts, and liabilities incurred by said counties in pursuance hereof shall be paid by the treasurer of said county on warrants drawn for the same by the county commissioners in due form: *provided*, That when such lodge shall be established, furnished, maintained, and provided for by two or more contiguous townships, the one-half of the cost shall be divided among them in proportion to the assessed value of the real estate in said townships.

SECT. 6. Before proceeding to establish such Wayfarers' Lodge, and thereafter at the triennial assessments, the supervisors of said township or townships and the councils of such borough shall lay the rate of assessment to include their share of the probable cost of establishing and maintaining and providing for such lodge in the same manner as in laying a rate for laying out, opening, making, and repairing roads and highways in said township or townships and of maintaining and grading streets in said boroughs; and the tax therefor shall be collected in the same manner as road and street taxes are now collected by law.

SECT. 7. That the Court of Quarter Sessions for any county shall appoint and constitute the superintendent of each Wayfarers' Lodge established in said county to be a special constable to enforce the provisions of this act.

Among the advantages of combining to the extent above mentioned the treatment of the tramp with the maintenance and repair of the public roads is that, while the adoption of the Wayfarers' Lodge system will doubtless at first increase the general rate of taxation in those counties and townships which introduce it, yet the improved condition of the roads due to the employment of the tramp will tend gradually to lower the road tax. While the possible saving to the State of thousands of her citizens from a life of pauperism and vagabondage, who would otherwise sooner or later gravitate to the alms-

house or the jail—thousands of whom would be now in the latter institution if the laws were strictly enforced—to be supported at public expense, is simply incalculable.

The objection of the demagogue, that the employment of the tramp will interfere with the rights of the laboring man, in this instance lacks foundation; for, as a matter of fact, the field in which it is now proposed to utilize the tramp labor is not only a much neglected, but, in some respects, an almost untrodden one.

But, whether it be a pecuniary gain or not, it will certainly be admitted that the community owes as much to the tramp as to the criminal. If the one is given an opportunity to work, surely the other, who has committed a much less grievous offence against society, should, for his own redemption and the public good, be obliged to work for his living.

The plan here suggested, I am aware, lacks the element of originality, as it has already been successfully in vogue in Germany for some years past. My attention was called to this fact by an extract from the United States Consular Report, No. 61, February, 1886, in which our Consul-General at Berlin, Mr. Paine, says:—

"While all this was done with a view of procuring abroad new fields of employment and development for the surplus of population, a new organization, quite novel in its character, was started at home. This organization was inspired by the deplorable fact that numerous working people, too poor to emigrate, remained at home without employment or tramped through the country for alms. These people contracted bad habits and vices, and became a danger to the country, especially to farmers. It was stated that about three or four years ago several hundred thousands of such people tramped through the land. The loss Germany sustained from this evil was estimated at several millions, people giving alms, partly from pity, partly from fear. It was a clergyman of Elberfeld, Von Bodelschwingh, who of his own accord, assisted by wealthy and charitable men, endeavored to remedy this evil. He organized in the province of Westphalia a so-called 'Workmen's Colony' after quite a new plan. He bought tracts of waste or partly cultivated land, erected buildings thereon for all sorts of trades and occupations, and invited the inhabitants of his province to assist him in combating the evil of tramping and begging. He suggested local committees to instruct and induce their fellow-citizens in future to refuse alms to vagrants and to contribute the money heretofore given to tramps (by them mostly invested in alcoholic drinks) to the support of the colony. The plan worked well. Tramps were compelled to seek support at the local relief station or enter the colony. . . . The enterprise met with universal approval. The Emperor himself, and the members of the government, as well as other influential men,

took a deep interest in the matter; and before long such colonies were established in all Provinces and States of Germany."

After reading the above, I wrote for further information to the Rev. Von Bodelschwingh, and in reply received several reports, a few statements from which, with your permission, I shall read in closing, as the strongest arguments I can urge in proof of the practicability of the Wayfarers' Lodge system, and its adaptability to the needs of our own country:—

"In addition to the colonies, whose capacity in the year 1883 would not enable them to receive more than from three to four thousand wayfarers in the course of a year,—six weeks being the minimum limit of their sojourn, and six months the maximum,—a much more important system was founded in connection with them, consisting of a network of Wayfarers' Lodges or stations, as they are called, to be extended throughout Germany, with the twofold object of removing all excuse for begging, and of furnishing the traveller in quest of work with food and lodging, to be obtained for a certain number of hours' labor, either at a wood-sawing and chopping establishment built in connection with the lodges or at a stone-breaking shop.

"Before the introduction of this system, the number of tramps was variously estimated at from one hundred thousand to two hundred thousand, and the cost of maintaining them at from 36,000,000 to 170,000,000 marks, or from \$9,000,000 to \$42,500,000.

"It is evident that even the lesser of these sums is much too high an estimate; and rating the cost at one-half that sum, 18,000,000 marks, or \$4,500,000, which, on the other hand, is probably too low a figure, and the cost of maintaining the colonies and stations at \$412,500, the support of the latter would be ten times less than the amount expended in the giving of alms to wayfarers and mendicants.

"The colonies are supported by voluntary contributions and church collections, and the stations by taxes, at a rate four times less than it would be necessary to levy without these institutions. It has been estimated that \$375 per annum would be sufficient to maintain the stations necessary to a county of fifty thousand inhabitants. Three hours' work should be required in payment of a night's lodging, and one and one-half hours of a dinner at the station. Six and one-quarter cents per diem in winter, and ten cents per diem in summer, is the average price paid for work at the colonies over and above the labor exacted in lieu of payment for bed and board. In one county, in Westphalia, there are five stations *en route* to the colony of Wilhelmsdorf. Every city and town should be provided with a general intelligence office attached to the station. In a certain county, all the charitable societies are united with a central society at the county seat. Each colony is obliged to keep a list of all wayfarers received, and discharged, and to send it monthly to a central office; and from thence it is transmitted to every other colony, so as to prevent imposition."

And now, Mr. President, allow me to be personal for a moment. On entering this hall three days ago, I saw an object, as I see it now, that reminded me of a very different scene from any these walls have ever witnessed,—and yet a scene so linked with this that without the one the other could have never been. We are told in Sacred Writ that eighteen hundred years ago, on Bethlehem's plain, among the midnight stars, an angel host was seen; and from their lips was heard the first great Christmas hymn, "Glory to God in the highest, and on earth peace, good-will to men." Nineteen centuries have rolled by; and now, in this Western land, and in a city called by the name of him to whom as the great preacher of the Christmas story, above all the sons of men, I must ever offer my tribute of hero-worship, I see another sight,—a sight which teaches me the lesson shepherds once learned from angels' lips,—the same, yet not the same. Above me hangs the emblem of our national life. On its dark blue sky, studded with stars, an angel face meets my gaze, and seems to say: I am something more than the carved image the natural eye may look upon. I am "the outward and visible sign of an inward and spiritual truth." The message of those I represent is in process of fulfilment. The truth those I symbolize came from heaven to utter is being reuttered now, not by angels, but by men. Yes, it is to America, not Judea, that I turn to see the prophecy of "peace, good-will," fulfilled, because to America is given the mission of proclaiming among the nations the brotherhood of man and the fatherhood of God.

For Christianity's sake, then, for humanity's sake, for America's sake, let not this Conference rest satisfied to rescue the waif, enlighten the insane, provide for the pauper, and redeem the criminal; but let it also put forth every effort to recall the Bedouin of our modern life from his wanderings, and restore him to himself and the State, a free, self-reliant, manly American.

Let us, then, work together, my friends, toward this end, until the prayer your speaker is so often called upon to utter be fulfilled, "that peace and happiness, truth and justice, religion and piety, may be established among us for all generations."

X.

**Causes of Pauperism and Crime.**

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REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON CAUSES OF  
PAUPERISM AND CRIME.

BY FRED. H. WINES.

At the Washington Conference (at which I was not present), a committee was appointed on statistics of Causes of Pauperism and Crime, of which Mr. Joshua L. Bailey, of Philadelphia, is chairman; but, owing to circumstances beyond his control, he has been unable to prepare a report. Being next to him on the committee, I have consented to take his place, only in order that something may be said on the general subject of the causes of misfortune, pauperism, and crime. I have no written report to offer.

Dr. Oliver Wendell Holmes has said that you can always cure a patient, provided the doctor is sent for in time; but that, in many cases, he should have been called two or three hundred years before the patient was born. I think that, in discussing the causes of misfortune and crime, the fact is often overlooked that these causes lie much deeper than anything which we are able to see. They are found away back in the origin and in the history of our race—in the origin and history of civilization. To change the world, one would have to go back and change it from the beginning.

What are the evils of which we complain? I think they may be summed up in a few general terms. Ignorance is one of them. Idleness is one. Disease is one (including under that head all forms of physical defect and infirmity,—insanity, deafness, blindness, etc.). Another is poverty, and another is crime.

Now, the ultimate causes of ignorance, idleness, disease, poverty, and crime, reside in the constitution of human nature and of human society, and in the relations which exist between humanity and its divine Creator and Father, the Almighty God. If we study the constitution of human nature and its relation to the physical conditions



of life, we discover one distinct group of causes of the evils which we deplore ; if we turn our attention to the constitution of society, there we discover a second group of causes ; and, if we concern ourselves with questions of moral and religious belief and practice in any given age or country, we find still a third group of causes. But we cannot deal with this subject without taking all of them into account.

The one, as it appears to me, with which this Conference has most to do, is the constitution and organization of society, or the development of our modern civilization. In the history of modern times, there are three or four great facts which stand out pre-eminent above all the rest, as characteristic of the social life of to-day. One of these is the invention of labor-saving machinery, and its general adoption and use. I think that the invention of machinery has changed not only the appearance of the world, but also the relations of man to man. Another is the aggregation of capital in the hands of large and wealthy corporations. A third is the tendency everywhere apparent to the aggregation of population in great centres, in towns and villages, instead of being distributed, as it was formerly, over a great extent of rural area. I might possibly add to these a fourth, which is sometimes called — though I do not like the term very much — the emancipation of women. Taking these together, you will see that the conditions of our social life to-day are, and must be, very different from what they were a hundred years ago. Our recent sudden and rapid development in these several directions may account in some degree for the present measure and manifestations of pauperism, insanity, and crime.

Among the causes of social evils, one which must be prominent is bad sanitary conditions. The growth of great cities, and the dependence of workingmen upon employers (who, for the most part, represent corporations), and the employment of workingmen in connection with machinery, have led to an alteration in the conditions of their domestic life, and, in some instances, at least, to very bad sanitary conditions, under which the laboring classes live from day to day. The industrial changes which have taken place have led, as we have heard this morning, from no less an authority than Mr. Carroll D. Wright, to the throwing of a million men out of employment. Evidently, a vast amount of suffering must grow out of that. Men who are unemployed cannot have the absolute essentials of physical life ; and thus they not only degenerate into a condition of pauperism, but they necessarily degenerate into a condition of crime.

The difficulty of finding employment is one of the great causes of suffering at the present time.

Another cause, to which allusion has been repeatedly made here, and which is never mentioned without provoking the applause of this audience, is the excessive use and abuse of intoxicating liquors, especially on the part of the poor, who resort to ardent spirits as their only means of consolation when all other human comfort seems to be denied them.

That there is a great deal of truth in this view is beyond question. I have no doubt that, if alcohol could be obliterated from among the substances known and used by the human race, and if nothing else were substituted for it, the morals and happiness of the human family would be greatly improved. But I must, at the risk of saying what you may not approve and may not like, express the opinion that much which is said with regard to intemperance and its relation to crime is not at all in accordance with the truth. That intemperance is a cause of poverty, and that it is a cause of domestic suffering, we all know. That it is a cause of deterioration of character we know also. I suppose that there are very few who do not have, in the large circle of their relatives — possibly you have — some one now in your mind, who has been a victim, and his family have been victims, to intemperate habits. Those who have suffered from alcohol through their relatives, feel that they would like to crush the monster who has interfered, as they suppose, with the happiness and honor of their family life. It is a natural feeling. It is a right feeling. I should not respect anybody who felt otherwise. And that intemperance causes an immense amount of social suffering is admitted.

But that it causes any very large amount of *crime*, properly so called, I do not believe. This is the opinion of the great majority of those who have the actual custody of the criminal classes. I have over and over again met the wardens of our penitentiaries in conventions and in their respective prisons, and have discussed with them this very question. They will tell you, almost without exception, that, while intemperance leads to disorder, and drunkenness is itself contrary to law, and there are many people in prison who are there for the violation of the liquor laws, and there are many criminals who resort to the use of intoxicating liquors — some of them to excess — yet there are comparatively few who actually belong to the criminal class (professional thieves, burglars, forgers, perjurers, murderers, and other convicts of high grade) whose crimes can be traced

directly to the use of intoxicating drinks. Indirectly, they may possibly be traced to the evil acquaintances and associations formed in saloons ; but, directly, they do not spring out of intemperate habits. In fact, a great many of our worst criminals are total abstainers. They could not succeed, if they were anything else ; and they are careful not to drink when they are attending to business. I think is right that this should be said. There is a great deal of confusion of thought in the minds of some of those who desire to abate the evils of intemperance.

Much of the talk on this question is the natural outgrowth of the materialistic philosophy prevalent in this age, which attributes spiritual results to purely material causes. I do not believe that spiritual results grow out of material causes. Men who do not want to admit that there is an element of depravity or corruption in human nature, if they see the evidence of such corruption in the crimes perpetrated by individuals, say, "Whiskey did it," and think that that is the shortest way out. If you find a bad man in prison, whom no one would trust, corrupt in every fibre of his being, and you ask him, "Friend, what brought you to this prison?" he will look at you, size you up, and reply, "Whiskey." That explanation relieves him of all moral responsibility, don't you see? And our good friends who know the evils of intemperance, and fight them, as every true man and true woman ought to do, turn away and say, "I knew it: it is another proof of the necessity for a prohibitory amendment to the constitution."

But it is not true ; and I ask those of you who are fighting intemperance, and especially those of you who believe in prohibition, not to fall into the error of supposing that, because intemperance is the cause of so large a part of all the evil under the sun, it is therefore to any great extent the cause of crime. I fear that you may misunderstand me. I claim to be as earnest a temperance man as any man or woman here to-day. I believe intemperance to be an immense evil, and that every possible effort should be made to suppress it. Every one of us ought to be found fighting against it. But in an association which seeks to ascertain, in the spirit of honesty and by scientifically accurate methods, the truth about social evils, whose ravages we hope to repress and restrain, no delusion of any sort should be accepted, without at least being questioned.

I am reminded of the story of a man in prison, who was asked by a visitor what brought him there ; and he replied, "Sneezing, sorr." "Why, how was that?" "Why, I sneezed, and it woke the gentle-

man up ; and he nabbed me, sorr. Have you got a bit of tobacky about you, sorr?" I am reminded also of the incident related by Prof. Job Turner, who has recently made a tour of the Southern States in the interest of deaf-mutes. Somewhere, he found one deaf-mute whose grandmother, I think it was, attributed her infirmity to the fact that the child was named after an aunt in England who was deaf and dumb. A great deal that is said on the subject of the etiology of crime and misfortune is not a whit more important or convincing than these amusing stories. It does not follow that, because this follows, therefore that is the cause of this. Because one thing helps to produce a given result, it does not follow that a great many other things do not conspire to produce the same result. In looking for causes, you must look for *all* of them, and not pick out one, and attribute to that one what, in fact, is due to all.

For this reason, I have not very much confidence in the statistical method of inquiry with regard to the causes of misfortune and of crime. I am written to constantly by my friends and others, asking me to give them some statistics on the relations of intemperance and crime, or statistics on crime and education. "I have got to read a paper," they say ; "and I wish you would give me some ideas and facts." And I have to reply, "My dear friend, if I were to answer your vague and comprehensive questions, I should have to write a book ; and for that I have neither the time nor the ability." Take the statistics published regarding intemperance. Some of them are tolerably fair. For the most part, they are not worth the paper they are printed upon. The same is true of the statistics of crime and education. Suppose that a criminal is educated : does it follow that his crime sprang from his education ? Suppose that he is ignorant : did his crime spring from his ignorance ? This, which is the crucial question, is not a question of statistics. You can take whichever horn of the dilemma you choose. Statistically, there is no more proof of cause and effect in the one case than in the other. On this question, students are arrayed in two great hostile camps, of which the one holds that education is no protection against crime, because there are so many people in prison who are educated, while the other holds that education is a protection against crime, because there are so many who are ignorant. There is, perhaps, nothing on earth more uncertain than statistics, and nothing more dangerous in the hands of a man who does not know what he is talking about. He shows his little table of figures. Where he got it he possibly does not know, but found it floating in the columns of some news-

paper, and he says, "There, I told you so; now it is proved." Perhaps it is, and perhaps it is not. I have been a professional statistician for many years of my life. I have had to collect statistics on a large scale, and I know, better than you can, how difficult it is to get reliable information in the shape of tables of figures on many subjects. They are only approximations to the truth; and, when you get them, the philosophy that underlies them cannot be developed from the tabulated statements which have cost you such labor; but the tables themselves require to be interpreted and illustrated from your general knowledge of the world and of human nature. As a rule, you can prove little by statistics that you did not know before you had them. There is not one of you in this hall, to-day, who does not know what an evil drinking-saloons are; and not all the statistics in the world would add one particle to your conviction on that subject. I might say the same of every other fact which goes to make up the etiology of crime and misfortune. Carefully prepared statistical tables, new relations are sometimes discovered, or new lines of inquiries suggested. But, after all, the statistics of causes of crime and pauperism are not worth nearly so much as many people think.

One other thing. It is a popular fallacy to suppose that, if the causes of crime, pauperism, and insanity were known, we could put a stop to the operation of those causes, and, having done that, we would put a stop to the effects which follow them. Not so. There are many who do not seem to have the slightest idea of the complicated organization of society. They do not understand the springs of human action nor its historical relations. They do not understand how communities are organized, and how they work. We had a beautiful illustration of that in the interesting paper by Mr. Bull, in which he enumerated the causes of tramping and the remedies proposed by his correspondents throughout the country. I have no doubt that almost everything suggested as a cause of tramping is in reality a cause, and that almost everything suggested as a remedy would have some value as a remedy. At one period of my life, I resided for a time in the backwoods, far beyond the reach of the railroad or the telegraph, away from cities, in the country, where there were no drug-stores. I remember how the old women used to practise medicine. They would strip a piece of bark from a white oak-tree, and make a decoction of the lining, and give that to a sick person. It had as good an effect as a drug, possessing identically the same medical properties with some scientific name. Many

homely things are done for the relief of social suffering, which do not find their way into scientific treatises. I would give more for the opinion of some good motherly woman as to the best methods of meeting some of these evils than for all the learned papers read before this Conference by learned men who think they understand it all.

But, while I believe in the nurse, I believe also in the physician, and that there is such a thing as scientific inquiry and investigation; only I do not think that we should call that scientific which is not. Here are these people, who know little or nothing of social anatomy or physiology or pathology or hygiene, but they say, "Here is my little pill,"—my little homœopathic pill, or big allopathic pill, as the case may be. "Put out your tongue and take it, and you will be all right."

Now, I must say, so far as our Conference is concerned, that this is not the place for the administration of medicine. We do not come together to apply remedies. We come to discuss evils, their nature, their extent, and the possible or probable cures for them. We are glad to have everybody contribute his mite of information to the general sum. But, as far as I am concerned—and I think I voice the feeling of others—while I am willing to hear what remedies any one has to suggest, I do not want any remedy forced down my throat. Some persons come here with one set of religious beliefs, and others with beliefs entirely different. Some belong to the Roman Catholic Church; some to the Protestant—the Calvinistic or the radical wing; and some are Jews. It does not make any difference what we believe. We can meet and discuss the questions before this Conference in the spirit of mutual tolerance and good-will. Some of us are Republicans, some Democrats, and some Mugwumps; but, so long as we confine ourselves to discussion, we dwell together in perfect harmony. But suppose that our friends of the Catholic Church should say to us, The remedy for all the evils which afflict society is for all men to bow to the authority of the Catholic Church, and we want you to do so. Those of us who are not Catholics would reply: We should be glad to oblige you, but we are Protestants, and we cannot go against our nature and convictions. Suppose that Rabbi Sonneschein should say, I want you all to become Hebrews, we would be compelled to give him the same answer. Let there be here perfect freedom of thought and expression in the interchange of opinion, but let there be no attempt to say, You must take and advocate my patent remedy for all the evils that afflict hu-



manity. If there are ladies who think that the rights of women are not fully protected by our laws—and I presume they are right, indeed, I am very sure of it—let them try to get such protection for women as they think they need; but do not let them try to convert this Conference into a woman suffrage association, for that it never will be. Let those who believe in prohibition, and want prohibition, organize for that purpose, and get it, if they can, in their own time and place and way; but do not let them try to turn this Conference into a temperance society, for it is, and ought to be, nothing of the kind. If those who believe that the greatest evil in the world is moral depravity, and that the great remedy for it is religious belief, want to organize this Conference into a church, they cannot do it. I believe in the Church, I am an officer of the Church; but the Conference is not a church. I can do what religious work I want or am able to do within the Church. This is not the place for religious controversy or evangelistic efforts. Let us have no attempt to commit the Conference to any definite set of opinions nor to any definite platform of action. The moment you do, that moment you are going to drive out of it those who do not approve of the particular opinion or precise form of action recommended. Let it be free, a market-place where every man can say his say, whatever it may be. If I had not known that it was a pretty free market-place, I should not have said some things that I have said this morning. Let every man, woman, and child in this Conference think what he pleases, say what he pleases, and do what he pleases, so long as his heart is in the right place, and he is endeavoring, according to the light that is in him, to lift up the fallen and degraded and to lighten the cloud of suffering that rests on the human race.\*

\*Inasmuch as this was a purely impromptu address, no attempt was made in it to exhaust the subject. Had there been, it would have been necessary to enlarge upon the defects in our system of public education, especially the want of manual training and physical development in our schools. The mass of criminals are unable to earn a living by skilled labor. I should have spoken also of the influence exerted by a democratic or popular form of government in stimulating ambition to a dangerous point, and intensifying the struggle for wealth and position, besides leading multitudes to live beyond their means for the sake of appearances. But the time was too short.

F. H. W.

## XI.

### Provision for the Deaf and the Blind.

#### THE EDUCATION AND THE CARE OF THE DEAF.

BY G. O. FAY, PH.D.

No civilization is complete that omits the care and education of children. No manhood deserves the name that declines to relieve the suffering and to sustain the helpless. The distinctive dignity, the divinity, of our century, consists in its willingness to honor all drafts drawn upon it by genuine humanity. The condition of the uneducated deaf needs but to be stated, approved methods of education need but to be presented, responsible educators need but to invite public patronage, and resources in reasonable amount are placed promptly at their disposal.

Illiteracy, a condition productive of pauperism, vice, and crime, is remedied by gratuitous compulsory education. Colloquial speech, an admitted alleviation, is not accepted as a substitute. But the deaf are both illiterate and speechless. A savagery so degraded as to have neither a literature nor a spoken language is hardly conceivable. But the deaf have neither, not a vestige. The savage receives stereoscopic impressions of nature and life through the senses of hearing and sight. The deaf receive their pictures of nature and life from sight alone. Their receiving capacity is reduced a half at least. Nor in the use of his single sense does the deaf child have the sympathetic co-operation of his natural equals. His hearing playmates do not, cannot, share his experience and divide his burdens. His imagination and reason, reflecting upon eye-gathered pictures, raise questions and encounter puzzles destined to remain unsolved and often misleading. Understanding no one, and himself misunderstood, he is wrongfully charged with possessing a passionate temperament. His advancing life tends to eccentricity and stagnation. The brand of isolation burns into his soul, deepening, and indelibly. Mute parentage, mute brothers or sisters or

other mute comrades, considered usually an accumulation of misfortune, afford some relief. Children so situated uniformly come to institutions in a better condition by reason of their early associations. They, exceptionally, have had a degree of genuine society. The ordinary mute's aborted, stunted career will be marked by many painful experiences of dependence, degradation, and outrage. His beaming eyes suggest the possibilities of his nature, his shuffling feet prefigure his destiny. He will be ignored in family gatherings and in census returns. His very name will, in rough parlance, degenerate into "dummy,"—a synonyme for idiocy itself. The one mute child in a circle of olive plants around the parental board presents a contrast profoundly affecting. The uneducated deaf-mute adult of our infirmaries, stolid, life-hardened, is an extremely low type of manhood.

The deaf-mute child, beginning to drift, invites at once the earnest efforts of men to save him from such a destiny. His attentive eye, his poised head, his alert movements, his handy ways, his eagerness to penetrate the mystery of hearing, and in some way to talk, attract friendship, awaken sympathy, and stimulate in his behalf every relieving impulse.

The fruits of a century of systematic effort now add authority to sentiment. No deaf child need now remain a mute. He may speak himself, and upon the faces of other men read their speech. Or, if these arts prove too difficult, he may hold the key to any and all literary treasures, and communicate in written speech. And, without these even, held down to an existence below life's usual plane, waiting teachers stand ready, to-day, to enter his own lower world of thought, and to render intelligible to him much of life's business and mystery. This lowest boon, like the air and the light, is universally attainable, and is worth all its cost. The ability to read and write is nearly universal among the deaf. Oral speech and lip-reading, twin inter-dependent arts, the highest gifts of education to the deaf, and its most difficult branches, are open to all who are able to receive them.

And the public stands ready to provide such an education, step by step, costly as it is. Whether it shall be given as an act of justice, a part of the education due to all youth, the deaf not excepted,—the more logical position and the one more agreeable to the self-respect of the pupils themselves,—or as a charity to the bereft, it will be freely and fully given to all who are willing to receive it; and it may, indeed, properly be required of all, as an element of public security.

The education of a deaf child, of any child, means, in addition to

the learning of a language, the acquisition of certain facts concerning himself and mankind, concerning every-day affairs and current events. It means a knowledge of reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, and history, a circle of learning qualifying him to be a citizen, self-supporting, and associating comfortably with the hearing. It means incidentally an access of mental power, and skill in some industrial art or its equivalent. Self-education, depending necessarily with the deaf upon voluntary vision alone, will gather something; but, at the present stage of civilization, such stores, at the best, are but crumbs. No deaf child, whatever a hearing child might do, can, without a teacher, escape from the circling eddies of endless obscurity, or, a worse fate, from painful notoriety.

The education of the hearing is a solved problem, not especially difficult. Obstacles, methods, standards, results, have been correctly defined, estimated, and provided for, over and over again. But such statements and definitions do not cover the case of the deaf. It is not an exact statement to say that deaf-mute education is but a more patient process of general education. It is not enough to explain that the deaf pupil, whatever his age, must begin at the absolute beginning of things,—a fact entitling him to a large amount of handicap, which granted, his ultimate success in the race of life is assured. A hearing child, in such a predicament, would present, in his subsequent development, no parallel,—no, not for a moment. The essential, the fundamental difficulty in the education of the deaf is of a metaphysical character, and arises from their inner life, their mental processes. What is this life? What are these processes? Wherein do they differ from those of the hearing?

The sensations of the hearing and of the deaf are entered upon memory's tablet more or less indelibly. The analysis of this record, and the combination of such elements in various forms of judgment and imagination leading to purpose, are thought. These sensations in bulk are unwieldy and well-nigh incommunicable. The mind appropriates our more flexible organs as its instruments, and employs their activity as its representatives, its circulating coin. It trains them to express its thoughts to the observing sense of other minds; and, as its own conceptions enlarge, it correspondingly modifies the representing act. All language is a growth, deriving its life from preceding mental impulse. Grimaces, postures, gestures, violent or gentle, and a certain range of vocal exertion are universally employed by the hearing and the deaf to express mental conceptions and purpose.

With growing intelligence, the mind of the hearing adopts the voice as its agent, almost solely, in endless permutations of articulation. It listens to its voice and diligently trains it, imitating with all docility the speech of other men. With something itself to say, it finds in society a powerful stimulus of its development. No hearing child fails to learn to talk. Its babble, its prattle, is attractive to its own ear, and is to others an endless tale. Soon, very soon, it becomes in the child a definite and intelligible language, a ready, habitual, spontaneous instrument of thought. Its conceptions of speech, as gathered from the words, the language, which it has heard from birth, may be, probably are, more perfect in its thought than its own artless imitations. But it has already a language of its own. And, in its dreams and in its delirium, it will not only smile and cry, it will also talk. Oral speech has become its second nature long before it has reached a school age, almost before it has left its mother's arms.

The struggling social instincts of a deaf child, guided by its living eye, seize upon early, employ, and develop another and the next available line of expression,—the activity of the hand and arm. As with the hearing the ear and the tongue form an indissoluble alliance, so do the eye and the hand of the deaf, forevermore. Obedient to the master sense, the teaching eye, every visible bodily organ, in addition to the hand and arm, contributes something—imitatively, pictorially, and, later, conventionally—to the expression of the expanding, widening inner life. The degree of expressive power so attainable is incredible to us who are only familiar with and use almost solely that natural partner of the ear, the voice. Ideas enter the mind of the deaf mainly as pictures. These are analyzed and combined again and mainly as pictures. They are communicated by the extempore or imitative outlining of the eye's trained representative, the hand. Such language with the deaf is off-hand, strictly vernacular, and strictly natural.

Interposing friends will teach the deaf child the meaning and use of manual or dactylic language, with its ally, language written or printed. This is a language strictly visible. Some will give to him a key to the labial picture of speech, and secure in his vocal organs definite muscular action, the consciousness of which, shadowy, but real, is his only conception of oral speech. Language derived from lip-reading is a visible one. That, composed of muscular action, consciously performed, cannot be so in any completeness. The deaf child will, of himself, universally prefer and use the easier, the

handier language. And the form of communication which he adopts in his intercourse with men will also lead and circulate current in his mental operations, which are, as in all men, by far the larger part of his experience.

The deaf child does not of himself adopt oral speech. Of it as an act, he knows nothing. Facial verbal speech is to him an enigma. No deaf Cadmus has offered to him a visible finger-alphabet. He stands at the foot of the ladder of social progress, its rounds sadly broken out. There is within him no pent-up vocalizing impulse struggling for exercise. His vocal chords play meaningless and unnoticed as breath sweeps by. Their master, the ear, is sleeping, is dead. Every deaf child everywhere will have and yield to an irrepressible inclination to express himself in gestures, extempore or studied, imitative or conventional, but always visible.

But, conceding to the fullest extent the vividness, the naturalness, the possibilities, the value, with the deaf, of picture language, of acted speech, of object lessons, they are not, will never be, the current coin of communication among the hearing, and so of men. The deaf are forced by necessity of numbers to become, at some time, in some way, allied with verbal speech, and must also admit it into their mental circulation, and, if possible, naturalize it. The act of expressing will necessarily determine the form of reflecting, of thinking. The deaf must conform to the hearing at some sufficient point. Pantomime must give way to verbal speech actually and mentally. Verbal speech may be oral, written, or dactylic. And, as reduced to mental currency, it will be, perhaps must be, a person's own speech, his own writing, his own finger-spelling.

It is an interesting inquiry to what extent the deaf can think in printed or script language without the intervention of any self-spelled or self-written form, a process sometimes called speech-reading. It is an equally interesting question to what extent the hearing can so think, thinking, as they unquestionably do ordinarily, in pronounced language, not as heard in others, but as pronounced by themselves. We are familiar with the difficulty, the well-nigh impossibility, of remembering unpronounceable words. Some claim to possess the power of calling up the picture of printed speech, page by page. Many persons, while conscious of a mental current of pronounced speech, can also conceive concurrently the same words pictured in print. Can the deaf, in whom the eye unquestionably leads, gain such strength of mental vision? Educators have not given this possibility the attention that its value deserves, nor is



it easy as yet to find instances of its existence in practice. To foster its development, the indifferent script and the domestic printing employed in the lesson papers of the earlier years should give place to the best type-work obtainable.

There is an apparent, a practical necessity with all men, in the acquisition of a language and in the use of it, for the doing of something actively and consciously. The receiving sense demands a correlated expressing-organ, not merely for actual communication, but for its own efficiency. Thus, the hearing child pronounces aloud what he is committing to memory. Checked in this, he will read in whispers. Checked again, his lips will move inaudibly, while mentally the same pronouncing process is proceeding. The loud tones of primer classes and the vocal tones of earnest, solitary study are illustrations of this mental habit. So also is the studying aloud of all Chinese schools, a practice at no time laid aside, and accounted for by the peculiar difficulty of the Chinese language itself. In a parallel way, the deaf pupil spells his lesson with his fingers perseveringly and repeatedly, or even writes it out laboriously, until it is learned. His spelling hand is held in direct range of his watching eye. Checked for this display by some sciolist in authority, he hides his spelling hand or reluctantly drops it, intelligently quivering still, by his side. With advancing proficiency, he omits this outward act, but not till the mental conception of it, as successively done, has become habitually and easily distinct.

Dactylic spelling, single-hand or double, is a slow process, compared with vocal speech or pantomime. It is pronouncing words, letter by letter, and by an organ far clumsier than the tongue. The finger-language, dactylology, offers no equivalent, except in the system of finger-numeration, for the verbal syllabic pronunciation of the hearing, acquired ordinarily before the child has any knowledge of spelling at all. The hearing child first pronounces and then spells, or spells later in order to pronounce. The deaf dactylist never advances beyond the spelling act. Finger-spelling requires three times the time required by oral pronunciation. The tongue never tires. The fingers and the hand soon droop. Writing is three-fold more laborious and protracted still. Its advantage is its completeness and permanence. The comparative speed of oral speech, dactylology and writing, is fully understood by the hearing teacher of the deaf, in his daily experience. He longs for the rapidity of oral speech, and always, in society, for the same reason, prefers pantomime to finger-spelling. This is a fact also, and for the same reason often, in the

social intercourse of the deaf, even when perfectly familiar with both forms of expression.

Mental operations do consume a certain amount of time, definitely related in duration to the language concerned in the process. They are unquestionably more rapid, far more rapid, than any outward expression in delivery. But they do require some proportionate time; and so the nature of their language is vitally, directly, related to their efficiency. One language is not as good as another, because as accurate. Spoken languages differ widely in utility. Much wider and more radical is the difference in the languages concerned in the mental operations of the deaf. Every deaf child is approached by three lines of language, his primary language of gesture,—presumably the original language of the race, long superseded, for the most part, but necessarily revived by the deaf,—the dactylic language of the teacher, including the written and oral speech. His mental life is directly proportioned in efficiency to their nature and extent, as they exist in his consciousness. They are the constant qualities which, in the equation of each individual life, determine accurately the methods to be pursued, the difficulties to be encountered, and the amount of education individually possible. Their influence and amount answer the mooted question of the comparative mental efficiency of the educated silent deaf and of the hearing. Nor does the wonder cease that, with such difficulties inherent in the use of verbal speech in its easiest form, the educated deaf gain so accurate an understanding of it in reading, and so practical a use of it in composition, though unable to speak it.

The desire and purpose to raise the deaf to the plane of the hearing, and the discovered difficulties in practice, from whatever cause arising, of all processes of education yet invented, have occasioned a lengthening of the school period from three years to ten,—by no means too long,—and, in some States, even to the removal of all limits. The acquisition of a foreign language, the most difficult, is not a very formidable undertaking for a hearing student, especially if young. It affords no parallel, however, in degree or kind, to the difficulties confronting the deaf student in his study of English from its alphabet to its labial expression. The especial difficulties of the deaf, more accurately estimated, incline the public of to-day to a generous allowance of school period. That a moderate amount of education will require more years, and each more costly, than the education of the hearing, is frankly acknowledged and fully agreed to. The public only asks, Are the time and money spent to advantage?

The superiority of oral speech goes without saying, and hardly requires a reminder that the identical results of the education of the hearing are not to be looked for, much less demanded, in the education of the deaf. Lower attainments by the latter, in the same time, do not necessarily indicate deficient skill, fidelity, or earnestness in either teacher or pupil. Inability to acquire oral speech is not conclusive evidence of an intellect imbecile or dull.

Every institution has pupils already acquainted at entrance with the art of speech and, to a less extent, with the art of lip-reading. Their speech may be active, or it may be in abeyance and easily revived. Deafness seals the lips too often unnecessarily. Some pupils are but partially deaf; and others, encouraged, can soon recall the speech of their earlier years. Hearing children, as early as three, have quite a range of easy language, and use it habitually. Some pupils called deaf hear what is said behind them in a loud tone; and many spoke and heard until their sixth, eighth, tenth, twelfth, fourteenth year. The first class of pupils described hear their own voice and much of the speech of others. The last class hear nothing, but possess trained vocal organs and word-stored minds. Unacquaintance with lip-reading, the usual fact, holds back these two classes at first from their natural rank. But, possessing the substance of spoken language, they soon recognize its visible points, and may be, should be, approached thereafter by oral speech, as hearing pupils, only more carefully. Such children find language lessons an idle task. The grasping of facts alone and the act of reasoning tax their talent. Such pupils easily shine at exhibitions, and write excellent compositions for annual reports. An uncritical, wonder-loving public, hearing or witnessing the display, infers an exaggerated literary and oral proficiency in all the deaf. Perhaps the pupil himself, favored in misfortune, forgets to acknowledge the real source of his eminence, and thoughtlessly arrogates superiority in mental strength or diligence over his congenitally deaf comrade of halting speech and blundering pen, whose mental machinery is of a character entirely different and inferior. Exhibitors and teachers do not always volunteer to auditors and visitors a statement of the unearned merit of exhibited pupils. Such exhibitions are likely to return to plague their authors by creating expectations that are not, cannot be, realized in the written or oral performance of the average pupil of our institutions in general society, away from their teachers.

There is also a constant class of pupils who have a low degree of hearing and shreds of speech, but are very deficient in both.

Those possessing any degree of hearing fall into the department of the aurist. Loud tones, the hearing trumpet, the speaking tube, the audiphone, skilfully applied, will occasionally restore utility to the dull ear, and return such children to their natural rank with the hearing. In all cases, they will facilitate the teaching of correlated oral speech. Aural training, comparatively recent, and yet in the experimental stage, should be pushed as far as it is productive.

The discovered ability to pronounce a few words, not numerous, but involving the correct utterance of the vowels and the consonantal elements, is a veritable Rosetta stone in the teaching of articulate speech. Success is but a question of time, nor far remote. Words so learned will not rest in the memory as vividly and permanently as words once heard and remembered; but they will have a conscious, a definite, significance, and can be relied upon in the process of thinking.

There remains the main body of the children of an institution,—children totally deaf, one-half congenitally so, and the rest with no memory of words and without vocalization in any degree. They constitute the mass of the deaf, and, at their coming, are accurately called "deaf and dumb," or deaf-mutes. They are more than half of the whole number, a full two-thirds. They do not appear upon the exhibition stage in literary display in any proportion to their number. With brilliant exceptions, they cannot expect to reach the National College. Their attainments do not astonish an audience, nor excel those of hearing children. Their difficulties are of a very solid and serious character. To win a tolerable success, they will need of themselves good brain, great energy and industry, and in their teachers an equal degree of skill, earnestness, and patience. If dull, indifferent, or wayward, or if neglected, they will, after prolonged tuition, carry away but a scanty supply of literary capital.

These pupils, all of them, at the outset use gesture language externally and mentally, and no other. Their homesick tears glisten and disappear in the joyful discovery that many others are like themselves. They are no longer alone in the world. Society, for which they have pined, has become a fact. Signs, grotesque and various as the beasts in the sheet of Peter's vision, are let down, and with one consent are poured out into their midst. Without scruple and with thankfulness, the fittest are selected to live. And so a sign language, gathered from the four winds of the deaf-mute world, comes into being. No better reason for any particular signs can be given than that they exist and the deaf use them. It matters not that they

are new or a century old, disputed or conventional. The deaf, in using them, say what they mean, and mean what they say. They use them incessantly and universally, even when prohibited. Their range is as wide as their experience, the events of the day and the topics of the time. Stimulated solely by their own social instinct, they will use them, re-enforced at obscure points by finger-spelling, with an accuracy, a rapidity, an eloquence, rivalling the social life of the hearing. Whatever their subsequent attainments in literature and oral speech may be, reunions or casual meetings of school friends will be signalized by a spontaneous, joyful return to the crystal waters of school-day pantomime.

In the midst of such a throng, so busy, so happy, the question will arise whether, for a deaf race, any other language would be needed or preferable. But such speculation is idle. It matters not that pantomime is vernacular to the deaf, and every other language artificial. The deaf are not a race, and are not educated, primarily, or mainly, or at all, to associate with the deaf alone. They may prefer, doubtless, ordinarily do prefer, deaf society, and in no clanish spirit; but the convenience and congeniality, important and essential to its happy existence, will seldom unite to provide it. Speech, though difficult and halting, writing, though laborious and infrequent, must be their usual language with men. Dactylic spelling and pantomime will be seldom encountered. That education will fail of practical value which does not bring the pupil up to the plane of fairly intelligible speech, or, if speech proves too difficult, up to the lower and easier plane of intelligible writing. However intelligent and disciplined the pantomimist may be, however valuable his art may be in deaf society, his education is useless, recite he never so glibly. His pantomime, however brilliant, is a curiosity merely in the society of the world at large.

In hearing education, teachers discuss topics before their pupils or require them to read up the same in text-books, and later to reproduce the remembered substance in language, written or oral, generally the latter. Facility of speech, an extensive diction, exists at the outset. A deaf child is not best taught by the same verbal process, destitute as he is, or nearly so, of both words and thoughts. Such a task is the Egyptian one of making bricks without straw. The wiser teacher, with true philosophy, will become for the time a gesticulating mute himself. The mute's pantomime he does not shun or seek to extirpate. He is thankful for its existence, and patiently learns to use it, that thereby he may lead the pupil up to the added understanding

and use of words in their easiest visible form,—the dactylic, or finger-spelled. He becomes a child himself, even a mute, that thereby he may lead his pupils up to and into their kingdom of heaven,—written and oral speech. The pupil, encouraged by the fellowship of his teacher, will work along this new line of language patiently, happily, hopefully, successfully. Not a single pupil will despair or fail. The script of the school-room and the type of the book will follow in close alliance. The fingers, in decimal system, will count and calculate; and their equivalents, numerical and verbal, will be committed to memory. Within a year, the pupil will write many a story with his stock of words, already amounting to five or six hundred. The same process, kept up, will conduct him subsequently through the various uses of the vocabulary of common life and the usual list of studies constituting the course. Printed language or script, previously written, will be the preferred medium of communication to the pupil in the school-room. Extempore pictures, pantomime, differing in no philosophic sense from the pictures of books, will be freely furnished in explanation of the verbal text. When neither print nor prepared script is accessible, dactylic language will be employed. But out of the school-room, in the tide of daily life, in its flood of events, great and small, in its business, its amusements, its necessities, its exigencies, verbal speech will yield precedence to the more rapid and more expressive language of signs. Spontaneous feeling will maintain itself against all precepts of teachers and their severest repressive discipline, be it sweeping or petty.

The child's first learning of language will be a process of simple imitation. Later, when ideas have increased and the reasoning faculties have measurably awakened, sentence analysis and rules of composition will be profitably introduced. No teacher, however, should forget that a wide vocabulary, scanty enough at the best, with simple syntax, very simple, is preferable to longer sentences of misused words. Much should be, may be, understandingly read that should not be at any time imitated. The wide understanding and flowing facility of teachers, and the analogy of composition by hearing pupils, often mislead the teacher of the deaf into a pace and range of work entirely beyond the assimilating capacity of his pupils. The right use of qualifiers and idioms is slowly, very slowly, acquired. Verbal language is incessantly lapsing. Haste will break up a growing style, really correct, into a chaos of shreds and patches.

For deaf children at this stage there is no adequate literature ex-



isting for the occupation of their leisure hours. So-called children's books, though beautifully illustrated, are decidedly too difficult verbally for deaf-mutes. To some exceptional pupils, already referred to, the editorials of the daily press and the fictions of Dickens are acceptable. But the ordinary deaf-mute needs at first books and papers upon the commonest topics, written wholly in simple sentences of eight or ten words. Such a literature is indispensable as a substitute and equivalent for the colloquial speech of the hearing. The want of it is the occasion of many idle, or worse than idle, hours among the deaf.

Following the acquisition of verbal language in its simpler and clearly visible forms of finger-spelling, writing, and print, the comprehensive teacher will also undertake, along the years, as a part of the general course, and with daily drill, to give to his pupils a mastery of the vocal equivalents of the words which they already understand and freely use. The task is beset with extraordinary difficulties, and should not be pushed at one time to the weariness or disgust of the pupil. Not hearing his own voice or the voice of others, and only conscious of certain muscular action approved by his teacher, his difficulties are prodigious. Gains trifling to the hearing should be thankfully recognized and encouraged. Every deaf child can learn a few words. Many can learn to pronounce sentences fluently. With advancing education, pupils, judiciously handled, will have a growing ambition to add oral speech to written. Poor articulation, broken speech, is better than none. The ability to utter single words, to go no farther, adds substantial value to life. To make room for oral speech, the range of study in general knowledge and written language, already limited, need not, should not, be narrowed. Vocal training should be introduced into, or rather added to, the course of existing education in fair proportion; and it should occupy a part of the daily school time, presumably, of every pupil. A degree of proficiency in oral speech should be made a condition of graduation in the State institutions and in the National College. To secure this result, extension of time, if demanded, should be granted.

The deaf, out of school hours, should be encouraged to use dactylic and oral speech, not passing beyond the point of weariness. If they are likely to become proficient in oral speech, steady encouragement and its superior convenience will secure its permanent use. After they have acquired the correct use of dactylic speech, they should not be held permanently to its use. If unlikely to rise to the easy use of oral speech, they should not be checked in their inclina-

tion to think in pantomime. Its celerity, parallel in degree to oral speech, affords them, in thinking at least, a great relief from the tardy pace of finger-spelling, be it ever so rapid and correct.

Errors of proportion have divided the educators of the deaf into schools of opinion, not exactly hostile, but certainly separate and narrow. The schools of France, for a century, and subsequently the schools of the United States, while theoretically favorable to the teaching of articulation, have demonstrated only and mainly, through long practice, the importance and possibilities of pantomime and the uses of the manual alphabet, supplemented by written speech. They have applied these instruments with great skill and energy, and have produced a remarkable body of silent scholars, easily superior in scholarship to anything that oralists have been able to produce. French and American schools, true to their traditions, have been backward, however, in taking up and applying, with equal skill and energy, the teaching of oral speech. Might not a fraction of their silent, written scholarship have been well exchanged for a degree of oral skill? Such seems to be their own present conviction. We are now witnessing the introduction of the systematic teaching of articulation into all the prominent institutions of Europe and America. And the pursuance of this policy has exhibited the fact that the development of the faculties and the acquisition of verbal speech by pantomime, by finger-spelling, and by books, are an excellent preliminary training, the full peer of all rival expedients, for teaching associated and subsequent oral speech itself. The pupil has something to say, and can be more easily taught to say it. The present need of our historic schools is to expand their scope still more widely, so as to include and attach to themselves all that is valuable in oral schools. If a longer school period shall be found necessary for the best results, it should not, will not, be withheld.

Another school of opinion, represented by the schools of Germany for a century, and by a few recently opened in the United States, ignores the pantomime of the deaf, and uses none. It omits the finger-alphabet, and proposes to teach the deaf at the start, and with no intermediate step, oral speech itself, and by it all branches of desirable knowledge. Though opposed to the use of extempore sign-pictures, it uses all printed pictures freely. It omits evidently and rejects such illustrations as the pupil is likely to imitate and to incorporate into signs of his own. It is communicating instruction with great and increasing skill, and to a proportion of pupils steadily enlarging. The partially deaf and those who have heard in early

years succeed from the start. An additional number, some of them totally deaf from birth, succeed to a limited extent, practically useful. A large number do not acquire it sufficiently to be able to rely upon it, singularly evanescent, in after life. At school, they habitually invent and illicitly use a gesture language for social relief, and feel more confidence in their pencil than in their voice. The time spent in oral teaching has crowded out some topics taught in the sign schools. The range of written scholarship, including English composition and the ability to read newspapers, is considerably lower. This deficiency is justified by those who are responsible for it by the compensating value of the oral speech, acquired or attempted.

These schools have yet to learn that, in omitting the use of pantomime and finger-spelling, they ignore the uneducated mute's best friend. They take away a ladder, the only ladder known, by which all the deaf can easily rise. They require the mute, scorning all climbing steps and gradual approaches, to clear at one bound the chasm that separates the deaf from the hearing. They force the recruit at once upon frowning breastworks. They apply a method derived from the functions of the hearing mind, and not at all from the essential, the universal functions of the mind of the deaf. Attempting the best things for all the deaf by a method heroic, they succeed with a small number, less than half, and, holding no middle ground, substantially, culpably fail with a considerable number. The brilliancy of the operation is clouded by its frequently fatal issue.

These schools, excellent, ambitious, and ably officered, need, in behalf of many of their pupils, to incorporate into the early years of their course all that is valuable in the sign-schools. The removal of intervening barriers will make the two jarring methods friends,—astonished to remember that they ever differed. Pantomime and finger-spelling, as jealously excluded now from oral schools as the "long keels of the Northmen," will prove a boon, a help, and not a hindrance to all their pupils. They will all easily rise, and rapidly, to the plane of written speech; and those capable of taking the higher step, the last, the crowning oral one, will not be the less able for having a broader elementary base.

To secure the best results in existing institutions, sign and oral, a degree of reorganization will be necessary, gradual or summary. It will involve in sign-schools the adding of the teaching of articulation to the daily round of the duties of existing teachers, or the employment of additional articulation teachers. In oral schools, it will involve the added use of pantomime and the manual alphabet

by existing teachers or the employment of additional teachers who can use them. New institutions need not be embarrassed by servile imitation of institutions time-honored simply. The line of progress is not necessarily a royal line, a dynasty. Errors may be transmitted, congenitally so. New institutions should have the enterprise and courage to select and to combine wisely, with at least one eye to the future. A great desideratum in the equipment of a school so enlarged is a collection of books, a library of them, composed in shortest words and in syntax extremely simple, with the syllabification and all silent letters clearly indicated.

It remains for our country, reverential and fearless, inventive and aspiring, and abounding in resources of money and of brain, to organize, to perfect, and to sustain an eclectic, a combined, an American system of deaf-mute education,—a system that shall be true to the nature of the deaf, and that, using all arts, shall conduct them gently, hopefully, happily, and within a reasonable time, up to the plane of oral speech. Some will talk in halting tones. Some will pause midway at written speech, and that in syntax poorly ordered. But all will, by graduated process, achieve results proportionate directly to their school time and to their receptive power.

In addition to the work of the school, institutions also provide the various ministry of the well-ordered home. Correct personal habits and exemplary morals, social refinements and services of worship, wholesome recreations, hospital care, and dietary regulations; a discipline elastic, as gentle as the feeblest, yet sufficiently resolute to control the most sturdy; a spirit of liberty united with equitable system; an eye seeing everything and nothing; a supervising energy that shall rid the administration of idleness, vice, and presumption; a harmonizing power that shall cause the general current to set one way without eddies, frost, or division; a commanding superiority of character that shall attract rather than enforce,—these and other desirable conditions are to be provided, if brick walls are to be quickened into a living, a real institution. The parent, who has never allowed his child to sleep away from the parental roof a night, intrusts to the institution the child's whole life, substantially, for ten years, and those the most plastic. How confiding the trust! How serious the responsibility!

An institution is more likely to flourish where the authority of the school and of the household rests in the same person. Singleness, directness, and symmetry of management can be best secured by the employment, in judicious division and gradation, of a sufficient

staff of assistants. Independent departments, not necessarily inharmonious, frequently are so. The importance of high character and of ability, of technical education and of easy social facility, at the head of the educational department, is generally conceded. The domestic department, even when independent, does not always fare as well. And yet personal qualities, equally high, have full scope in the management of its various affairs. The educating influence of the eighteen hours spent daily in the domestic department is as important as that of the six spent in the school-room five days of the week. The purchase and use of supplies, the keeping of accounts, the repair of buildings, and the care of stock, important and indispensable, are not so important as the ability to mingle socially, controllingly, with the children themselves. Good business qualities do not necessarily qualify an officer to be the head of a family of young people, from two hundred to five hundred in number, all using habitually a language with which he may be wholly unacquainted, and to learn which he may be too old, too busy, or entirely indifferent.

Institutions should be as large as is consistent with thorough control. Several small schools are likely to be, each of them, inferior in quality to the same united. They are, separate, the ungraded, poorly equipped, rudely taught schools of sparsely settled districts as compared with the cultivated schools of populous centres. They are the cobbler's shop of the cross-roads as compared with the factory, the machine-shop, of the city. A degree of concentration in any art is favorable, is essential, to its best development. The best pantomime, the best equipments, the best classification, the best instruction, the best body of opinion, sentiment, and character, will be found in the larger schools, when well administered. A school of two hundred will produce better results than any smaller. When mutual acquaintance is becoming slight, when executive energy fails to reach and to harmonize details, when neglect, abuse, or misconduct can exist for prolonged periods unnoticed or concealed, when the necessary daily tactics of the household are burdensome and oppressive, then, and not till then, has the institution passed the true limit of its population, and aggregation has become an evil. Deaf children cannot be sorted out and locked away, indefinitely, in wards, like insane patients and criminals. General assemblage for various purposes and free social circulation must and should frequently occur throughout the day.

The sexes will be present at all institutions in the ratio of three males to two females,—a fact not inconsistent with equality of the

sexes at home. This curious inequality in number results from a degree of popular indifference to female education, the greater sensitiveness of the sex itself, and a greater parental solicitude for the security of daughters away from home. This proportion in demand can be relied upon in the construction of buildings.

The officers and employes of an institution are emphatically, more than books, the educating world of the pupil. They should possess the best personal qualities of the best homes. They should be safe, agreeable, profitable associates for the pupils out of school as well as in it. A certain degree of association with the humblest employé is inevitable, nor is it altogether undesirable. It should be of a useful, never of a corrupting, or of a merely negative character. The possibility of neglect, abuse, and injury in any case, and their occasional occurrence to a shocking extent, suggest the need of the utmost care in appointments, as well as of sleepless vigilance in subsequent oversight. The institution, like the home, embraces the interior life, the confidential experience of many persons. Its officers should be faithful to its domestic characteristics, and refrain, when justice, delicacy, and charity forbid, from the public exposure or rude exhibition of its intimate events and incidents, however innocent or trivial. Such honor, scrupulous and discreet, will promote confidence and co-operation between parents and officers. Happy is the institution whose officers, of either sex, deserve such trust!

The appointing power in our country is, in fact, too often heedlessly indifferent to the qualifications and conduct of appointees. Some executive officers, at the time of their appointment, know nothing of, and some even thereafter care to know nothing of, the natural language of the deaf. Physicians and supervisors are often appointed or removed upon the exigencies of national and State politics. Stewardships, family superintendencies, and matronships are doled out as rewards by the secret service or pension departments of political parties. Our parties should insist upon the best administration, and do well to depute the authority to secure it to trusted, reliable men of their own faith. Mixed boards may be unmixed evils. Trustees of any faith prostitute their trust, however, when they bond the appointments which they control in payment of political debts, or when they use the educational interests of the deaf, and the care of them, as political capital mainly. The people have not established these institutions, and do not now support them at heavy cost, with a view to providing temporary homes for intriguing or starving partisans. The people did not build them to be converted into party ambulances.



Institution life should be organized with leading reference to the welfare of the pupils themselves. In the appropriation of rooms, the arrangement of school-hours, the assignment of housework, the consumption of supplies, the general use of the premises, large opportunity exists for officers to provide for themselves first, and incidentally for pupils. This is not parental: it is simply and only mercenary. Evils of this nature have led, sometimes, to the exclusion of the domestic life of all adults, or of as many as possible, from the institution building. Social privation is the chief calamity of the deaf, and should be alleviated by every reasonable expedient. Properly regulated and pervaded by a generous devotion to the welfare and progress of the pupils, the incidental society of as many adults as possible — at any rate, of teachers and employés — is beneficial, and should be recognized, encouraged, and regulated by careful provision and privilege. A spirit of generous interest in the deaf will also protect the duller, perhaps uninteresting, pupils from premature dismissal. Pupils should not be left to suffer from delayed promotions and hasty removals in the interest or at the caprice of ambitious or impatient teachers. Institutions should not be administered primarily for the comfort of a staff of officers, or chiefly in behalf of the brighter and more attractive children.

Institutions having the whole care of children between the years of ten and twenty — children with whom communication will always be especially difficult — owe them an industrial training. The combination of this with school work has resulted widely in the enforcement of work-hours in the morning and in the afternoon of each day. The full employment of the foreman, in itself desirable, has tended to an undue extension of the daily time of the pupil. Of late, and as a remedy for obvious defects, two rotating systems have been put into operation. By one, pupils attend school half a day, and work the other half. By the other, pupils attend school two-thirds of the day, and work one-third. This latter proportion is preferable, because sufficient. The pupil becomes reasonably proficient in his trade, and has more time for school-work. The urgent, predominant importance of this with the deaf is felt keenly by the older classes and by the better scholars. Those trades are indicated which, other things being equal, require the least social co-operation. Shoemaking, carpentry, tailoring, printing, gardening, and the arts of design have proved most satisfactory.

Day-schools for the deaf are sustained in some of our large cities. The public is relieved from the support and care of the pupil out

of school-hours ; and the prolonged, painful separation of parent from pupil, incidental to institution life, is escaped. Day scholars, however excellent their instruction may be, do not advance so rapidly as institution scholars. Home-life — which at the outset could, confessedly, do little or nothing toward their education — does but little more at a later period. Home-life means far less educationally to the deaf than it does to the hearing. Deaf children at home measurably stagnate or drift. The devoted mother, the faithful sister, the attentive brother, willing to be the constant literary companion of the one deaf member of the household, are rarely met with. In the busy life of the family, the deaf one, at any age, is left to himself, not exactly intentionally, perhaps unavoidably. Affection is lavished, but literary companionship is omitted. Like the frog in the well, the school of the day is severely taxed to make up for the night's decline. The plea that such pupils practise at home what they learn at school is largely contradicted by their experience.

Should institutions for the deaf have a cottage or a unitary character? Each system of construction has characteristic advantages. With the deaf, the great importance of intelligent society, a condition to be scrupulously fostered, and the necessity for unusual attention to details in administration, turn the scale in favor of the unitary plan. Very satisfactory models of institution buildings now exist in the country. Size, the shifting tenure of service, the ignorance of employées, accidents, and, most important, incendiary attempts, not infrequently occurring, indicate the undoubted wisdom of building fireproof.

A notion has prevailed that institutions for the deaf are unnecessarily large, and their normal number of pupils is by some compared unfavorably with the capacity of the hospitals for the insane. The deaf require superficial space for the whole number in a dining-room, in dormitories, in sitting-rooms, in school-rooms, in an assembly room, and in play-rooms. Other rooms are also needed for the convenient and successful management of a large household. Each pupil should have a single bed and a single desk in both study and school-room, with large lee-way. The style of support should be inviting to the better class of citizens, and will, of course, be acceptable to the poorer. There should be no disposition, under the pretext of economy, to run it down to a pauper basis. Such parsimony will work a blight. The grounds should be, for suitable recreation and ornament, twenty-five acres in extent. If the buildings are fireproof, and then only, they need not be contiguous to a large town or city.

But the details of philosophy, of school methods, and of administrative management, with all occurring cautions and precautions, are endless. Institutions for the deaf, to deserve the name, must embrace and provide for the whole daily life of the pupil, from seed to fruit, in widest circle. The best elements of the home, of the school, of every department of human life, should be so gathered, combined, and administered as to promote, in the period of his youth, his highest educational well-being, and so to qualify him, the peer of the hearing, to discharge with pleasure and honor the full functions of an American citizen. The State, the nation, as well as corporations municipal, and those charitable, composed of private citizens, among all their various trusts, assume no one of greater delicacy, difficulty, importance, or promise. Theirs is the privilege, receiving the full light of the past and acting up to the opportunities of the present, to lay foundations that will not crumble beneath the wiser building of the future.

### EDUCATION OF THE BLIND.

BY B. B. HUNTOON.

State institutions for the blind are almost everywhere called—either through stupidity or carelessness — “asylums,” though they are in reality schools. There has been fostered in them the American ideas that an education is the birthright of every child in our republic, that it is better to spend a large sum of money to make a citizen than to spend a less sum to maintain a pauper. Under the influence of these ideas, our State schools for the defective classes have grown to be the most perfect flowers of our social development. As the science of education advances, the character of these schools improves; and they, too, contribute their share of information and suggestion to the solution of psychologic and educational problems. Their proper standing is unquestionably among educational institutions; and they ought to find no place, except one of courteous tolerance, in a Conference of Charities and Correction.

But there is a class of institutions beginning to appear in various places in our country, that are novel to our ways, and, to a certain extent, foreign to our established customs. Among their titles are such as these: “Working Home for Blind Men,” “Manufacturing Establishment for the Blind,” “Industrial Home for the Blind,” etc., their avowed purpose being to furnish employment and a home to blind men.

The most successful of these is one in Philadelphia, under the supervision of an able and energetic blind man, Mr. H. L. Hall. Ninety blind men are there maintained, and an increase is to be provided for. State aid has been obtained; and, though the expenses have always been above the receipts, the results have been deemed highly satisfactory by its managers.

The opinions of those engaged in educating the blind vary widely in respect to the propriety of establishing such homes. The questions involved present problems of peculiar intricacy and great importance.

Our schools for the blind do not furnish a training that insures a livelihood to all who pursue their prescribed courses. In the struggle for existence, the blind man, to make up for his physical disadvantage, must labor longer, be more skilful, more thorough, more frugal, more energetic, more upright, than his seeing competitor. That the training he gets in our schools ever fits him to maintain himself in the world is a sufficient justification for their existence. The purpose of the industrial home is to take the pupil as he emerges from his school, and provide him at once with employment. The State, under such circumstances, virtually says to him: On account of your misfortune, you shall be reared in a boarding-school, where you shall be fed, clothed, lodged, and provided with the best possible instruction, while you are under age; and, after you have completed that course, you shall be received into a government workshop, where permanent occupation at remunerative wages shall be furnished you. There is but one step further to take (and that has already been taken in Philadelphia, where a "Retreat" for the aged and infirm blind has been established) to make the path of the blind smooth and easy from the cradle to the grave.

Is it not time to cry, Halt! before pressing on to the establishment of governmental workshops for the blind; for, the principle once admitted, at what misfortune shall we draw the line?

But, in some of our States, such shops have already been established. Let us treat these, then, as experiments; and let us insist by proper legal enactments that the fullest record be annually presented to the public, not only of all receipts and expenses, but of the number, the names, and the conditions of those helped, showing what they have been taken from, how long they have been cared for, what each has personally produced, and what it is proposed to do for them, how many have been discharged, and for what causes, so that from a knowledge of all these things the fullest possible light may be thrown

upon these institutions that, some of us think, will sooner or later sap all the springs of independence from the lives of those for whom the State has freely spent her resources in their youth for the very purpose of keeping them out of all kinds of almshouses in their manhood and old age.

The workshop system, if it is to be generally adopted, must of necessity cause an entire change in the present character of our State schools for the blind. The entire basis of all the educational work now carried on by the States for the benefit of the defective classes must be reconstructed, and the principles that have guided us for the past must be thrown aside. If they are erroneous, the sooner they are discarded, and the sooner we align ourselves with the right ones, the better for us and the objects of our care.

## XII.

### Hospitals.

#### HOSPITALS FOR THE SICK:

##### THEIR CONSTRUCTION AND MANAGEMENT.

BY DR. P. S. CONNER.

A hospital for the sick is for the cure of the sick; and, in the consideration of every detail of construction and management, first and constant reference must be had to its influence in securing the fullest possible relief, to the greatest number, in the shortest time. Suitably located, properly built, and wisely administered, a hospital is a power for good in the relief of suffering and the lessening of disease; and advantageous, indirectly, to all the community, through its influence upon medical practice. But, defective in place, in plan, or in work, it may become a veritable plague spot, killing its inmates and poisoning its neighborhood. As to where and how it should be built and in what way carried on, many of the present ideas are known to be, and others are believed to be, correct ones, based upon extended observations and repeated experiments; and may with truth be regarded as the outcome of centuries of work, developed at a cost of thousands of lives and millions of money. They cannot be disregarded by Architect, by Board, or by Superintendent, without serious detriment to sick and well. Magnificent façades, monumental buildings, and spacious quadrangles with flowers and fountains are, in and of themselves, all very well, if they can be afforded; but, if they fail to be accompanied with thoroughly ventilated, properly heated, and duly cleansed wards, cared for by competent nurses, and occupied by patients appropriately classified (and they will almost of necessity to a greater or less extent be thus unaccompanied), however attractive they may be to the æsthetic eye, to the sound judging mind they are but whited sepulchres. Simplicity in plan, thoroughness in construction, and watchfulness in management are the three things that best secure the purpose for which a hospital exists.



Where should it be located? By preference, upon an open elevated site, that the free circulation of the air currents may not be interfered with; in no near proximity to swamps, low grounds, or the openings of ravines or long narrow valleys, the miasmatic vapors or cold winds from which cannot but be injurious; far enough removed from all buildings (dwelling or other), that neither the water nor air-supply may be contaminated; and resting upon bed-rock or a soil well drained, in which the ground-water level is low. A heavy clay or made ground should never be built upon, if other site can be procured; the first because of its coldness and dampness, the second of its containing decomposing organic matter. In hot countries, sands, unless covered with vegetation, are objectionable, on account of their great power of absorbing and retaining heat, in degree from one-third to one-half more than that of ordinary arable land.

In northern latitudes, it may be necessary to provide (as by location under the lee of a hill) some protection against the stronger and colder winds. Ground-water levels and the permeability of the soil should always be ascertained before a site is definitely decided upon; and, very generally, thorough lateral and under drainage will be found advantageous, if not absolutely necessary.

Much discussion has of late been had as to whether the general hospitals in large cities should be centrally located or established in the outskirts. Ready accessibility in cases of accident, comparatively short transport of the very sick, ease in procuring supplies, and lessened demand upon the time of the attending physicians are the great reasons for the central location.

But, in a densely populated part of a city, sufficient area can seldom be secured to afford even the minimum space of an acre to each one hundred patients, unless, fortunately, a large hospital reservation was early made, or there is a park that can be utilized for the purpose. Abandoned burial-grounds are not proper sites, and should not be used. Rarely, except at great expense, can be secured the "sanitary zone" of Tollet,— "a free space on all sides of the hospital for at least twice the distance of the height of the highest surrounding buildings"; and even then these latter will probably much interfere with proper ventilation and sunning, and frequently they are large factories, with their attendant noise, smoke, and dust. Further, even if a space can be secured sufficiently large for the hospital as at first built, not often will it be possible later to make such additions as the increase of population must in a comparatively few years render desirable, if not necessary. For the welfare

of the sick,—and it is for this that the hospital exists,—a somewhat suburban location, of ample area, is altogether preferable; and the difficulties of reaching the place must be overcome by careful, improved transportation. Rapid transit, which is becoming so great a necessity in all of our large cities, will afford some relief from the extra burden imposed upon the medical staff, the imposition of which is really a very strong objection to the selection of other than a central site. If necessary, a small in-town receiving hospital can be maintained.

For a medium-sized or large hospital, no plan should at present be adopted other than the pavilion.

Extended observations in all civilized countries have shown the evils of the old-time convent-barrack plan, with its mass of buildings so often completely surrounding a central court,—evils which do not possess a single redeeming feature other than economy of space. The corridor plan, with its many immediately adjoining wards all under one roof,—each, so to speak, ventilating into every other, with windows only at the end or ends,—is but little, if any, better. So much of the hospital as is devoted to the housing of the sick should be made up of comparatively small, completely detached buildings, located so as to receive the largest possible amount of sunlight and the freest circulation of air. Though pavilions were advised a century ago by Tenon, it is but a generation since they were first used in the Lariboisière Hospital, and a quarter of a century since our rapidly extemporized immense military hospitals proved their great value, both as respects ease of administration and safety to the patients. Separated from each other by a space in width not less than twice the height of a pavilion, they should, at least in other than tropical countries, be placed in such position as to secure the largest possible amount of sunlight,—that is, running north and south or a little inclined from north-east to south-west,—being built either parallel, on one or both sides of the line of communication, or *en échelon*. Placed radially, as in the circular or wheel hospitals, much of the good effects of the plan will be lost. Three-storied pavilions should not be built; and to a two-storied building, notwithstanding its economy of space and perhaps of money, there is the very serious objection that, unless the greatest care is exercised in its construction and management, the ventilation of each ward will not be independent, and both the quantity and quality of the air-supply will be defective. The difficulty of getting patients into and out of the ward on the second floor is an additional reason in favor of one-

storied pavilions; and these latter should always be provided for surgical, infectious, and lying-in cases, to whom abundance of fresh air is of vital importance.

For convenience of administration, to lessen the liability of bed-to-bed infection, and to secure more certainly and more promptly attention to wants and wishes, there should be comparatively few patients together. Never again will there be built such enormous wards as are to be seen in some of the old continental hospitals.

Temporarily, under stress, very large rooms, if they can be well ventilated, may without special danger be occupied by many patients. In the great hall of the Mechanics' Institute in New Orleans, in 1863, I placed one hundred and ten beds; and, for a year, at least, the death-rate in that ward was not higher than, if as high as, in other parts of the hospital. But, beyond a certain and that a rather uncertain and narrow limit, aggregation means, without question, increased danger; and there is quite general agreement that the number of beds should not exceed from twenty-four to thirty, one-half to two-thirds of such number being sufficient for a surgical, obstetrical, or fever ward, especially if there are in it many cases of severe character. In a children's hospital, not more than from four to eight patients should be in a room together,—if for no other reason, to lessen the number of those who must be disturbed by the crying of one too young to exercise much, if any, self-control.

In shape, the ward has almost universally been oblong. The square has in a few instances been selected, it being claimed for wards of such form that they are more easily tended, are more cheerful, and are more uniformly ventilated, and, further, that a much greater degree of privacy can readily be secured by the patients. Whether or not such claims can be fully maintained is questionable; but, up to the present time, experience has been too limited to enable any one to speak decisively. The Johns Hopkins Hospital in Baltimore has an octagonal two-storied pavilion, which, it is hoped, will prove that the modification of the square by cutting off its corners is an improvement, and to the best interests of both patients and nurses. Quite recently, circular wards have been erected; and they are believed to furnish all the advantages of the square or octagonal buildings at less cost in proportion to the bed space, and at the same time to be more readily and perfectly ventilated, the smooth curved wall offering a minimum resistance to the air currents. The new Civil Hospital at Antwerp has eight of these round pavilions, each two stories in height. Burdon Sanderson has advised wards of this shape for small-

pox and other infectious diseases, as permitting of more rapid and complete aspiration of the foul air through a central opening.

Very generally, the ceilings of the wards have been flat; but many of the one-storied pavilions (as was the case with the barrack hospitals erected during our late war) have been left open to the roof, thus increasing the air space and favoring free circulation. In the Toller system, the ceiling rises in the form of the pointed arch,—and not the ceiling alone, but the side walls as well. For circular wards, a domed ceiling is, it is thought, much preferable to any other, since the very shape of such a room directly favors the establishment of ascending currents, and materially aids in securing the necessary ventilation. Sir Andrew Clarke relates that, “while inspecting the grand domed circular tomb at Delhi, in hot, calm weather, he inadvertently let fall from his card-case a small slip of tissue paper, which, to his amazement, instead of falling slowly to the floor, was steadily wafted upward to the centre of the dome.” Afterward, he made repeated experiments of the same nature in various parts of the circular domed temple at Calcutta, and always with the same result.

One of the most troublesome questions in connection with a ward is in relation to the position of the service rooms. If placed, as they generally are, at one or both ends of the long ward, they necessarily interfere more or less with ventilation, since experience has shown that the chief air currents, no matter how many windows there may be on the sides, are in the line of the major axis of the building. One end of the ward at least, therefore, should be left free. The water closets, which are always likely to be, and very generally are, sources of annoyance, and too often of positive danger, should, if possible, be detached from the pavilion, the communicating corridor being cross-ventilated. The supply of water should be abundant, and the soil-pipes properly connected with a suitable sewer; and too great care cannot be exercised in the trapping of these pipes. In very small hospitals and in localities where but little water can be secured either from the ground or from rains, earth closets should be used. All water and gas pipes should be in plain sight,—not buried in the walls,—that leaks may be readily detected and repairs easily made.

The building should have underneath a free air space, in height not exceeding six and one-half feet, that it may be easily passed through when necessary, and yet not be readily used for service purposes. The side walls above the ground and below the ward level should be formed of a row of arches, the resulting interspaces being

left open in warm countries and in hot weather, and in colder latitudes so closed that they can readily be opened up. The floor of this basement story should always be thoroughly laid in cement, as a protection against the ground water and ground air.

Shall the building be of wood or of brick or stone? That depends altogether upon circumstances,—size of the hospital, comparative cost of the different materials, the mean and the extreme variations of the temperature, the violence of the winds, etc. For small hospitals, in places in which lumber is abundant and cheap, and the winter cold not excessive, wood may very properly be employed; but, for the larger town and city hospitals, brick is the best material, being safer, more durable, and, while permeable to air, not, like wood, subject to decomposition.

A few years ago,—partly because of the observed good results of cases treated in military establishments, but chiefly on account of the wide-spread feeling that long occupation necessarily rendered any building unfit for hospital purposes, there being generated and retained conditions inimical to early recovery, and indeed to recovery at all,—the general opinion among medical men was that temporary rather than permanent wards should be erected. As a necessary sequence, either wood or cheap brick structures were advised, sufficiently good to answer the desired purpose for ten, twelve, or fifteen years, but so inexpensive that they could, with due economy, be torn down or burnt up, and replaced by others to serve a like term of years. Permanent administration buildings and temporary wards were at that time thought to be the proper elements of a hospital. But, in the last fifteen years, much has been learned respecting the causes of the unhealthiness of old hospitals, and the means of preventing the "hospitalism" of Sir James Simpson; and to-day there are few, if any, who hold the extreme opinions on the subject of temporary buildings that were so general and seemingly so well grounded a decade or more ago. Permanent buildings properly planned and suitably located, it is now known, will be healthy or unhealthy according as they are or are not wisely administered.

The walls should be double, with an intervening air space, on the inside well plastered and painted, so that they may be easily washed or, if necessary, scraped. There should be no lathing, or only that of iron wire. All corners should be rounded off, and as little wood used as possible, and that of durable kind and well seasoned. The floors may very properly be of hard pine (oak splintering too much), laid in cement, and thoroughly oiled or shellaced. Every precaution

should be taken to render the building as nearly as possible fire-proof. The windows on the sides should be opposite each other (with not more than two beds between each pair), should come within two feet of the floor, and extend up to within one foot of the top of the side, and the upper sash be so made as to permit of its being dropped inward, that the entering air may be directed upwards. In a flat-ceiled room, the air space above the level of the tops of the windows is, as a rule, of little or no value; and, ordinarily, nothing is gained by having the ward of a height greater than twelve or fourteen feet. If, as is so desirable, the room for patients runs through to at least one end of the building, the windows at such end should be in height and width similar to those on the sides; or, better yet, the end may be thrown out into a large bay, thus increasing the light and adding much to the cheerfulness of the ward, establishing, as it were, a little solarium.

The beds (which, as has already been stated, should not exceed twenty-four to thirty in number) should each have a floor space of not less than one hundred square feet, giving, in a ward twelve feet high, twelve hundred cubic feet, the minimum which is at all permissible, unless special arrangement is made to secure an uninterrupted stream of air through the building. If the ward is to be occupied by severe surgical or fever cases or by lying-in women, the floor space should be increased at least one-half.

The furniture should consist simply of bedsteads, tables, and chairs, with one or two common-service tables and a wheeled carriage for surgical dressings. The bedsteads should be of iron, with woven wire mattresses, provided with a movable plate, wooden or metal, that can be slipped underneath the latter to increase firmness when needed. No curtains should be placed around them; for, though insuring a certain degree of privacy, they seriously interfere with the free movement of air, and serve to catch and hold those minute organisms which are the causes of the diseases that are the special scourges of hospitals. The little tables, one to each bed, should be substantial, but plain, provided with one or two drawers, preferably the former. Recently, they have been made with glass tops, which can easily be kept clean, and have the further advantage of allowing of ready inspection of the condition of the drawer below, the value of which will be apparent to every one who has had knowledge of the ordinary contents of stand-drawers in an occupied ward.

If the pavilion is two-storied, the stairway (which ought to be of iron or stone) should be so detached as to reduce to the lowest



possible degree the passage of air from one ward to the other. The corridor connecting the several pavilions on a level with the occupied floors should have its supporting walls so built as that an abundance of air and light may be afforded to the subway, which, with properly cemented floor, may, if desirable, be used in the moving of patients and supplies. In this subway, the water and gas pipes may be carried. By some, it has been contended that the passage-way from one pavilion to another should be entirely open; but the necessities of a northern climate make it very desirable that the communication between the buildings should be by a corridor, the sides of which may be either open or closed by movable slats.

The administration building, located in the centre, should be reserved entirely for the offices of the hospital and the living apartments of the superintendent and resident physicians. Its height and its character, architecturally and æsthetically considered, are to be determined by what is needed and what can be afforded. The kitchen and laundry, as also the boiler-house and gas-works (if there are the latter), should be in detached buildings, removed as far as may be practicable, and never should be so placed as to occupy opposite sides of a square, upon the other two sides of which are located the pavilions. Such an arrangement, a number of illustrations of which could readily be mentioned, destroys in large measure the pavilion character of the hospital, and assimilates the plan to the old-time quadrilateral and enclosed court. Where economy of space is absolutely necessary, the kitchen may be placed in the upper floor of the administration building, a location for every reason better than in the basement. The dead house and autopsy room should be as far off as possible, and never (as the latter at least too often is) in close proximity to and under the same roof with the operating theatre.

Every hospital, other than a small one, should have two completely detached, one-storied isolating wards (one for men and one for women), in which can be placed cases of acute infectious and contagious diseases, medical or surgical. These pavilions should be supplied with an amount of fresh air largely in excess of that furnished the ordinary wards, and had better be divided up into several single-bedded rooms, so constructed that they can not only be washed out, but burnt out. In small hospitals (and in larger ones in default of permanent buildings), very serviceable temporary wards of this character can be made with tents, which, properly floored and supplied with stoves, can be made comfortable in quite cold weather: or inexpensive wooden huts or barracks may be put up.

In large hospitals, separate buildings should be provided for the nurses; and there should be no nurses' room in direct connection with a ward. While on duty, the nurse's place is in the ward itself; and, when off duty, he or she should have a quiet, comfortable room, that rest may be secured and health maintained. Even in the smaller hospitals, a nurse should not sleep in the ward or an adjoining room.

In the last twenty-five years, especially the last ten, much attention, both in England and in this country, has been given to the subject of so-called cottage hospitals; and we may soon expect to have, in many of our smaller manufacturing towns, hospitals of from six to a dozen or twenty beds. Though an ordinary dwelling may be utilized for the purpose, and by judicious and watchful management kept healthy, still it will always be better, if an old house is taken for the administration building, to put up pavilion wards, the same care being exercised as in a large hospital to have such dry, warm, properly ventilated and sunned. Plenty of sunlight is as necessary as plenty of air, and the most recent investigations have shown that it is directly destructive to those minute organisms that are the producers and maintainers of disease. No dark hospital ever was a healthy hospital. When the water-supply is not very abundant, and proper drainage is difficult, these little hospitals should have earth closets, which, duly attended to, fulfil their purpose excellently well.

The most difficult problems in construction are those connected with heating and ventilating. If the hospital is small, the patients few, and the climate not a rigorous one, the ordinary house methods of warming and airing will prove sufficient, provided only that special attention is paid to them. But, when we come to deal with 50, 100, 300, 500 sick and wounded, in all degrees of weakness and debility, with their suppurating surfaces, their offensive discharges, their constant exhalations, and their poisoning emanations, how, properly, and yet at reasonable cost, to secure the necessary amount of fresh, warm air is by no means a simple question or one at present fully answered; though it is a fixed fact that, in northern climates, as Billings puts it, "it is impossible to have at the same time good ventilation, sufficient heating, and cheapness."

Natural ventilation — *i.e.*, by doors, windows, chimneys, and openings in the roof (larger or smaller, in or on the side of the ridge), in moderate weather and when there are but few severe cases in the ward — secures a sufficient air-supply, and is always of great value as a part of the aerating system. But in the larger hospitals, and in the winter months, especially during the nights, it will not answer the

requirements; and reliance must be placed mainly upon so-called artificial or forced ventilation,—*i.e.*, upon air driven in, or that which rushes in to supply the place of foul air drawn out by heat-developed currents. In general, the latter or aspirating method has been adopted; though, by use of the fan, a much more thorough change of the ward air can be rapidly secured. The aspiration is effected by carrying the foul-air ducts into a stack heated by either an inner furnace smoke-pipe, an open fire at the bottom, or a steam-coil. Each ward may have its separate shaft, or the ducts from all may be led into a common central one, the latter plan being the cheaper, the former the more reliable. In some hospitals, the pavilion attic has been used as an aspirating chamber, into which have been carried the foul-air ducts from the ward or wards below, the necessary heat being furnished by steam-coils, and outflow secured through ridge ventilators.

The amount of air supplied should not be less than one foot per second to each bed (3,600 feet an hour); and, to avoid perceptible currents in the room, "its movement should not be more than one and one-half feet per second anywhere, except at the point of entry, where, even if warm, it should not exceed five feet per second." Experience has shown that it is better taken in at or near the floor, behind or under the beds, as, when passed in near the ceiling, it does not readily and thoroughly commingle with the air at the lower levels of the room.

The heating problem is closely bound up with the ventilating one, indeed may be regarded as an integral part of it. In small hospitals, in places where the winter's cold is not excessive, fireplaces, either alone or together with stoves, afford sufficient warmth, and add much to the cheerfulness of the room. As aids to ventilation, no matter what system of heating is adopted, open fireplaces ought to be provided, to be used either regularly or in the spring and autumn months, when the chilliness of the mornings and evenings makes it necessary to warm the wards for a few hours at a time. If stoves are employed, care must be taken to keep them properly supplied with fresh air from without; and they may with much advantage be so jacketed as that ventilation by aspiration may be effected. Hot-air furnaces should not be used, at least in other than very small hospitals, since the amount of the heat furnished can be controlled only with some difficulty; and foul air or that loaded with smoke and dust is very likely to be sent over. As a rule, either steam or hot water will be employed, apparatuses supplying the former being cheaper in first cost and more readily repaired, but more dangerous,

requiring more constant attention, and furnishing heat of higher temperature and less easily regulated. The heating arrangements for all service rooms should be separate from that of the ward.

In the management of any hospital, small or large, there are two quite distinct departments: the one purely professional, relating to the medical and surgical care; the other executive, embracing the control of the housing, feeding, and tending of the patients. Except in the very smallest cottage or in private hospitals, the one is under the control of the medical staff, the other of the superintendent, both subject to the authority of a governing board of managers.

This board should never be composed of men appointed for party reasons, and not even in municipal hospitals should they be elected by the people at large or their representatives in the Common Council. With ordinary politicians as trustees, the house officers may be expected to be incapable or indifferent, and the management costly, wasteful, and barren of good results. The longer the term of service and the rarer the changes in the *personnel* of the board, the greater will be the familiarity of the trustees with the requirements of their positions; and, as a necessary result, the more useful will they be to the hospital.

The members of the medical staff (few or many in number according to the needs of the hospital) may be appointed annually or hold office during good behavior. If the former, it should be a fixed rule, a part at least of the unwritten law, that no change shall be made except for positive neglect of duty; since no self-respecting physician would accept a place from which he was likely to be removed at the end of a year for political reasons or personal whims. If the tenure of office is known to be a feeble one, the medical officers cannot but feel a correspondingly weak interest in the discharge of their duties. It is a very general custom to limit the term of service in the wards to periods of two, three, or four months, the several physicians or surgeons regularly alternating. There are certain advantages in this arrangement. It doubles, perhaps trebles, the number of medical men directly connected with the hospital, and in like proportion lessens the burden imposed upon each. So long as services are rendered gratuitously (as they are now everywhere in this country), although from personal, professional and charitable reasons, the best physicians (especially those engaged in teaching) are usually willing to hold hospital appointments, the demands made upon their time and services should not be too heavy.

But it is very doubtful if such rotation is for the best interests of

the patients, especially those in the surgical wards. Modifications of treatment, internal or external, will of necessity often be made, for every one has his favorite methods; and such changes cannot be expected to prove always beneficial. Again, personal interest in a case that has already been weeks or months in some one's else charge is not so deep as in one that from the very beginning has been under direct observation. Not that anything will be left undone that ought to be done, but it will not be done with the same spirit. Fewer beds and uninterrupted service will, I believe, be better for both staff and patients. But this would necessitate (very often) the appointment of an assistant staff; for it is yearly becoming more and more apparent that doctors, in order to do their best work, must and should have their annual vacations, that in the woods, on the sea, or in new cities they may find rest and recreation. Additional reason for the establishment of a junior staff exists in the desirability, already referred to, of suburban location; for, when so placed, regular daily visits should not be demanded of men in full practice.

To provide for emergencies and to relieve the staff of unnecessary attention to details, there should be appointed (in other than very small hospitals) house physicians, in number proportionate to that of the patients. Either advanced students or, better, recent graduates, they should be selected after competitive examination, and should serve either twelve or eighteen months, passing in turn from department to department of the house. It is not well that all of them should finish their hospital term at the same time. Comfortable rooms should be provided for them in the administration building, or, if it can be afforded, they should have a building of their own; and their duties should be so arranged that they may have a reasonable time for professional study.

The superintendent should be the executive officer of the house, having the supervision and control of all matters not directly connected with the medical and surgical care of the patients. Upon his knowledge, executive ability, and conscientious devotion to duty largely depends the smooth and successful working of the hospital. In such individual, a peculiar combination of talent is required, and one not always readily found. Able to control subordinates and to supervise (at least in a general way) the purchasing and issuing of supplies, he must appreciate the ward necessities in respect to cleanliness, warmth, and air, and the means of properly meeting them, and by constant watchfulness see to it that they are provided. In

too many hospitals, the chief attention of the superintendent is directed to matters of finance. Economy is right and proper, and extravagance is always an evil; but the important thing in management is not to see at how little cost per day the hospital can be run, but in what proportion and how quickly the patients can be cured, and returned to the class of producers. Very generally, a reported low rate of expense indicates but an apparent saving, since it is mainly secured by cutting down the general diet list, the result of which is a prolongation of the period of convalescence, with corresponding increase of the ultimate cost. Should the superintendent be a physician? If he is, he will undoubtedly be more likely to understand and satisfy the demands of the house in matters relating to ventilation, warming, and the dietary; but, unless his duties are very clearly defined, and he has good judgment and discretion, there is strong probability that conflicts with the medical staff will be of not infrequent occurrence. In other than large hospitals, the necessary examination of patients for admission may well be left to him, if a doctor; but under no circumstance should he have the power to discharge a patient until requested to do so by the attending member of the medical staff.

Nothing perhaps conduces more to the welfare of patients, and secures more certainly the desired results of treatment, medical or surgical, than good nurses; and one of the great difficulties in all our hospitals, until very recently, has been the getting and keeping a corps of such. As a rule, the pay has been too little to attract or retain men and women having the requisite qualifications,—intelligence, tact, readiness to obey, strength, and health; and, as a consequence, the nurses have too often been idle, neglectful, and intemperate, recruited largely from the ranks of the lazy and shiftless. There was much truth in the remark of an old officer of the army, when years ago complaint was made of the conduct of soldiers, that "it was impossible to get all the virtues of earth for eight dollars a month." Somewhat more adequate pay, more considerate treatment, better provision for their welfare, and the establishment of training-schools have, in the last few years, given to many of our hospitals a much improved nursing force; and we may reasonably expect that there will before long be an increased and more general change for the better.

Every large hospital should have its training-school; but it is asking too much of the medical staff that they shall give the additional time and labor required for the instruction (theoretical and practical)



in such schools, a duty which may very properly be left to a junior staff and already trained head-nurses. Care should always be taken that the teaching be not of such character as really to unfit the scholars for the proper duties of their position, to create (as Hodges puts it) "an unexpected hybrid, neither servant, nurse, nor doctor."

Quite recently, in various hospitals, attention has been strongly directed to the advisability of placing female nurses in the male wards. Every one recognizes the value of the services that have been and are being rendered by members of different religious orders in the Catholic Church. The non-religious and semi-religious nursing sisterhoods that have lately sprung up have, when under proper control, done excellent work. The memory of those who tenderly cared for the sick and wounded of the English and American armies will be kept green so long as the Crimean war and the Great Rebellion are remembered. But is it well and practicable in ordinary hospitals to intrust the nursing of men to other than men? So far as experiments have been made, much advantage has been found in having a properly trained woman as head-nurse in each ward, assisted either by a female or male nurse or by convalescent patients. Wards thus attended are cleaner, more orderly, and more carefully watched; and, as a result, the recovery of patients is surer and speedier.

In conclusion, it may be said that a hospital is of necessity a complicated machine; and much wisdom is required in its preparation and its management. Faults in construction and errors in administration, the latter even more than the former, diminish its usefulness and harm the community. For every reason, they should, if possible, be avoided; and it should never be forgotten that, to secure the desired good results, sufficient money must be furnished to properly build and wisely to administer. As respects essentials, who spends saves.

### XIII.

#### Immigration and Migration.

##### REPORT OF THE STANDING COMMITTEE ON IMMIGRATION AND MIGRATION.

The Standing Committee on Immigration and Migration, by its chairman and the members present, herewith submit the following report:—

Our subject has been so fully considered and discussed in previous sessions of the Conference, beginning with that held at Detroit in 1875, that only a brief statement, with certain recommendations, now seems to be necessary, in addition to the paper herewith submitted. Since our last report, made at Washington in June, 1885, the following statistics have become available:—

The number of immigrants arriving in the United States during the calendar year 1885, as reported by the Department of the Treasury, was 395,346 as against 461,346, the arrivals for the calendar year 1884. The arrivals in 1884 included those coming across our borders, by railway and other land vehicles, from the Dominion of Canada and from Mexico, numbering 47,706. The arrivals in 1885, from July 1 to December 31, do not include this class, there being no law of Congress for the collection of statistics in this respect. The apparent decrease in immigration in 1885, as compared with that of 1884, is only about 66,000. As facilities have recently been largely multiplied for bringing immigrants by the way of Canada, many of whom thus reach the United States, the *actual* decrease, if any, was doubtless much less; and it seems probable that there may have been a slight increase during the year.

We would again call attention to the obvious defects in our federal immigration law of 1882, requiring an amendment to render it properly effective. These defects, in brief, are as follows:—

1. Its execution depends entirely upon local, State, and city organizations, often of political bias, and likely, therefore, to be influenced more or less by political and local considerations.

2. The examination of immigrants upon their arrival is generally hurried and superficial.

3. There is no reciprocal action between the authorities of the various ports for the relief of immigrants falling into distress, or for their return to the countries whence they came, if improperly sent.

4. The statute prescribes no penalty for its violation in attempts to land the insane, pauper, helpless, and criminal classes on our shores, and is not, in fact, very well enforced.

We therefore submit these recommendations:—

*First.* The execution of the law should be, in part or wholly, in the hands of federal officers, untrammelled by party and local influences, and directly responsible to the Department of the Treasury.

*Second.* The examination should be thorough and vigilant, and the capacity of each immigrant for self-support should be satisfactorily established before he is permitted to land.

*Third.* The procedure at the various ports, so far as practicable, should be uniform and reciprocal; and concurrent legislation on the part of the States should facilitate this procedure.

*Fourth.* Violations of the statute in bringing criminals, insane, and otherwise helpless or vicious persons to the country, should subject the owners of the vessels implicated to a fine in each case, in the nature of a libel on the vessels, to be enforced in the proper courts.

*Fifth.* Certificates stating that the immigrants are neither criminals, lunatics, nor chronic paupers, with the indorsement of our consuls and commercial agents abroad, should be transmitted to the authorities of the port at which they are to land, and the immigrant provided with a duplicate of the same.

This last recommendation has already become operative by the adoption, at the request of our government, of such a system of certificates by the empire of Austria-Hungary; and its adoption by the other governments of Europe would tend to relieve us of many of the evils in connection with immigration, of which we now have great reason justly to complain.

In preparing this report, the undersigned \* have communicated with the members not here present, and with the authorities at Washington, and at several of the ports where immigrants are received in large numbers. A bill embodying some of our recommendations has been introduced in Congress, at the instance of the Treasury Department, and is supported by some of the State authorities.

\* This report was signed by C. S. Hoyt, F. B. Sanborn, and M. McG. Dana.

## MIGRATION AND IMMIGRATION.

BY F. B. SANBORN.

The subject of immigration has often been considered by this Conference, and there has usually been appointed a standing committee on the subject. This year, the name of this committee has been slightly changed, so as to include the subject of migration along with immigration, as being a part of the same movement of population which we commonly call immigration. Strictly speaking, *migration* is the more general term, covering both *immigration* and *emigration*, and also applying to the movement of animals from one climate to another, as well as to the movement of men. In its restricted sense, however, we signify by *migration* the removal of persons from one region to another of the same country, or their passage from city to city in search of employment, health, or amusement. Thus, the so-called exodus of colored laborers from the South, a few years ago, was a migration. So, too, is the annual resort of invalids from the North to a warmer climate in winter, or from inland regions to the seashore, or *vice versa*. The semi-annual procession of tramps and vagrants from the cities to the country in the spring, and from the country to the cities in autumn and winter, may also be called a *migration*; and there are other illustrations of this incessant movement of population within the limits of an extensive nation like our own. The terms *immigration* and *emigration* are well understood. They are correlative to each other, one denoting the movement *into* a country, and the other the movement *out of* a country; and one of these always implies the other. To the United States, however, the question of immigration is alone of much importance, since few of our people permanently emigrate, while every year we receive hundreds of thousands who come to this country to live and die.

The relation of migrating animals to the whole economy of nature is not yet very perfectly understood; but there must be something very important which it is designed to secure, or else these ceaseless movements of bird and beast would not be carried on with so much outlay of time and so many wonderful provisions of animal intelligence and forethought. As it seems to be the chief aim of Nature to preserve and extend the species, with little special regard for the individual, we may perhaps assume that these migrations are intended to widen the range of habitation for each creature, and

thus give it a firmer hold against the destructive tendencies which are constantly operating to diminish the number in each species, and finally to suppress it altogether. A further reason for migration is found in the modern theory of evolution, according to which change of place, in a given species, may so modify its food, habits, and capacities, as to produce in time an apparent change of type, developing the higher from the lower. However this may be with the inferior creatures, it is plain that the migrations of man have resulted in giving him a surer hold on this planet and a more varied and higher development than would otherwise have been possible. Wherever human migrations have been checked, as in the case of the Eskimo of America or the remote islanders of Australasia, the races have grown feebler and more degraded. Wherever migration has been promoted,—even by the harsh discipline of war, pestilence, or famine,—there we have generally and ultimately seen the wandering races grow wiser, more stalwart, and more prosperous. The history of civilization is a record of migrations, from that first excursion out of the Garden of Eden to the last colonization of the Christian virtues in lands of barbarism or among the solitudes and waste places of the earth. We who inhabit this western hemisphere have a good right to say this, since we owe our very existence among nations to the migratory instinct of mankind. Four centuries ago, except for the half-frozen colonies of the Norsemen in Greenland, this whole American hemisphere was untenanted and unknown by European men. Now, it contains a hundred millions of their descendants, besides half as many more whose ancestors came from Asia and Africa or were indigenous here, and who by contact with our own civilization have been raised some degrees in the scale of human advancement. Nor can we calculate what benefits have flowed back from these savage shores to the nations of Europe by whom they were colonized.

Yet these benefits have been by no means an unmingled good, for migration has its evil side also. It would ill become us to dwell on these evils exclusively, for that would be to malign the cause of our own earthly existence; yet we must not forget the bad while enjoying the good. The same unresting spirit which brought the Spaniard, the Frenchman, and the Anglo-Saxon hither, led also to the torture and enslavement of the native inhabitants whom they found here, and to the forced migration of millions of African barbarians, with whom came the mischiefs of slavery, sedition, and civil war. So, too, with the floods of immigration that in this century have been

turned toward North America. Their course has been fertilizing; but they have brought with them a sediment of ignorance, poverty, and vice, that has seriously retarded the growth of the whole community upon which they have been thrown.

What is true of immigration, or the movement that brings people from one distant country to another, is also proportionately true of what we may call migration, in its restricted sense; that is, the movement of inhabitants from one part of the same country to another. This narrower manifestation of the same restless spirit is everywhere increasing, for the same reasons that have stimulated immigration and made it easy. The growing facility of travel, not only from one country to another, but within the same country; the localization of industries or amusements in a given spot; the concentration of employments which a great city compels, together with the fluctuations of industry and trade that are so incident to the world-wide transactions of the present age,—all these lead to movements of the population, which, as compared with those of former times, resemble the march of armies rather than the journeys of an individual. Yet each unit of this moving mass is an individual aroused to activity and kept in motion by personal incentives of some kind, and not by the word of command which puts armies in motion. Consequently there is an absence of method and of aggregate motive, such as prevailed in the armed migrations of ancient times, in spite of all attempts made to establish colonies in the same locality and of the same nation, sect, or social condition. In this country, such colonies have had a certain degree of success; but it is more customary to find that individuals of the same nationality have congregated in the same city, district, or State from the natural social attraction of race or religion rather than from an organized attempt to colonize them.

Emigration for the last fifty years has particularly affected the so-called Germanic races, including the Scandinavians and that intermixture of Teutonic and Celtic blood which is found in Ireland. Of these Germanic races, the continent of North America is the great receiving basin and area of development. At present, North America contains more persons of British descent than Great Britain, more of Irish descent than Ireland; and it will soon have more of German and Scandinavian descent than Germany or Scandinavia contain. Of the so-called Latin races,—the French, Spanish, and Italians,—we have as yet comparatively few; yet in all the Spanish American countries of North and South America there are probably more persons of Spanish descent than in Spain itself. Italy has begun



to pour forth its children into the new lands ; and even France, a country most averse to colonization, is now seeking an outlet for her too abundant population. But it is the Germanic races, including the Scandinavians and the Anglicized or Americanized Irishmen, for whom America stretches out her extensive countries ; and it will be in the United States, apparently, that the intermixture of peoples, colors, and creeds, will first find its acclimation and take on its new geographical character. Perhaps this change has already taken place ; for we see that our countrymen—to whom we give the rather arrogant name of Americans, in exclusion of Mexicans, Canadians, and West Indians—have already acquired a distinctive and characteristic nature, easily separating them from Europeans. It is uncertain to what causes this is wholly due ; but climate, political institutions, social opportunities, and the freedom of a new country,—all have something to do with it. This Americanization of European immigrants has been going on for a century and a half, at least ; but it is only within the last half century that the tide of immigration has set so strongly toward our shores as to make many persons doubt whether we can Americanize the new-comers as fast as they arrive. Let us, therefore, consider a little what the conditions of the problem are, and how we can best meet it. I pass by, for the present, the question of Chinese immigration, where there is little effort to make Americans out of Mongolians.

During the last ten years, the number of European immigrants arriving in the United States has exceeded four millions ; and we may assume that for many years to come we shall receive, one year with another, at least four hundred thousand. In all, we have perhaps received since 1816, or in seventy years, ten million immigrants, of whom there are now living in the country something less than eight millions, out of an estimated total population of sixty millions. It is not likely that the foreign born will ever much exceed this estimate of eight millions ; and the proportion which they bear to the native born has been every year diminishing of late, notwithstanding the great influx of immigrants. The number who are of foreign parentage, of course, is much greater ; but even this has nearly or quite reached its highest percentage. The census of 1880, which for the first time attempted to show the parentage of all our people,—at that time, 50,155,783,—gave those of foreign parentage as 13,011,646 ; while only 6,679,943, or but little more than thirteen per cent., were actually foreign born. Now, this whole segment of our people—those of foreign birth or of foreign par-

entage — furnishes far more than its due proportion of illiteracy, of poverty, insanity, infant mortality, vice, and crime, when compared with the native population of the Northern, Western, and Pacific States. Exact statistics on this point are not easy to collect, but the general result is evident enough. According to the reports of the public officers in New York to the State Board of Charities in 1880, there were 56,000 paupers in the poorhouses that year, of whom 21,746 were native Americans, or one in every one hundred and seventy-six of the native population; while 34,312 were foreigners, or one in every thirty-five of the foreign population of the State. If we could assume these classifications as correct, these figures would indicate five times as much pauperism among the foreign as among the native population; and, in fact, the proportion must be more than two to one. In Massachusetts, it is at least this, and not less than this in most of the Northern States. The census statistics of insanity give a similar result.

Before commenting on this extraordinary state of things, let me point out some of the reasons why it exists, and probably will continue to exist for some years to come. The impulse to emigrate from one's native country does not ordinarily inspire first those who are comfortable, fully occupied, firmly established, or reputably engaged in their homes. It undoubtedly sets in motion many of these classes; and of such has been the seed-corn of this American nationality, of which, in each of our forty States and Territories, we are justly proud. But the colonists who settled in Virginia from 1607 to 1665 were not all Cavaliers; nor was New England colonized wholly by Puritans, nor Pennsylvania by Quakers, nor Maryland by devout Catholics, nor Gen. Oglethorpe's settlements in Georgia by the bone and sinew of England, nor Louisiana by the best blood of France, nor New York by the invincible Hollanders of the religious wars, nor the Carolinas by French Huguenots and Scotch Presbyterians. Along with the sturdy race of colonists in each locality, or following up their success as planters, came a motley crowd of "broken men,"—paupers, convicts, loafers, and outlaws,—such as inevitably flock into a prosperous new country, unless great pains are taken to keep them out. The experience of Texas, Arkansas, California, Colorado, and other new States, within the recollection of middle-aged men, is a sufficient illustration of this; while the crowding of poor and wretched foreigners into nearly all our large cities for thirty years past points out another phase of the same movement. This active immigration of the needy and shiftless, the unfortunate

and the vicious, has allowed us to develop our industries and extend civilization as no nation ever did before; but the evil results of it are seen in street riots, senseless strikes of misled workingmen, ignorance, poverty, and vice, upon a scale almost as colossal as the growth of our country.

The attractions of liberty and high wages have not been the only ones that have forced this great immigration. There has also been a succession of organized efforts to rid the overstocked countries of Europe of their defective, dependent, and criminal classes. To what extent this has gone, nobody knows very exactly; but we see evidences of it in every part of America. The knowledge that this is done has stimulated the national government, which was long indifferent to the evils resulting from forced or assisted emigration, to pass laws during the last four years for the purpose of protecting our country from these evils. Separate States—New York, Massachusetts, California, etc.—had long before attempted a similar protection through their State governments. Perhaps the time has arrived, as Dr. Hoyt suggests, when the nation should make its regulation more stringent.

What, then, are the principles which should govern the public treatment of immigration, whether by nations or States?

1. Every nation has a natural and conceded right to control the movements of its own population,—to banish whom it pleases, to exclude whom it pleases, and to prevent its own citizens from leaving the country. All these rights have been exercised during the historical period by every existing nation, and most of them are now exercised occasionally.

2. But it would be contrary to wise policy to put these extreme powers into frequent exercise, for thus a nation would interfere with all the daily course of affairs in the modern world. The utmost it can do, in times of peace, is to regulate the coming and going of persons to and from its dominions. This regulation may also be put in force by any State of a federation, like our Union, or by any local jurisdiction within a State, care being taken not to infringe the national compact nor to violate the natural rights of the individual. In recent times, when peace prevails, these regulations are generally sanitary and moral; but they may also be political, and to this there are no theoretic objections, provided treaties are not violated nor natural rights set aside.

3. What applies to nations applies also to States and neighboring communities, so situated in regard to each other as to make migration a customary thing.

4. All restrictions and regulations, however, must, in the end, look to the good of the whole human race; and due consideration must be given to the fact that migration has been the appointed way in all history for the introduction of beneficial changes in the condition of mankind. As the stability of material nature is maintained by constant change, by revolutions of planets, flow of ocean currents, flight of winds, etc., so the permanence and amelioration of humanity is secured by analogous changes in the situation of mankind.

5. Now, the good of the whole race requires that migration, in all its forms, without being stopped, shall be everywhere regulated and put under supervision, in the interest of the poor and vicious as well as for the protection of communities against wide-spread evils. The laws concerning vagrancy and tramping, now in force in many of our States, are attempts to regulate this natural or unnatural migration. These should be made more systematic, and be more consistently enforced. But along with such laws, in all cases, should go a friendly method of removing and receiving, from State to State, those poor and friendless persons whose relief properly falls upon some other community or State than that in which, for the time being, they are found. Such measures require concurrent action on the part of adjoining States, and can be so framed and administered as beneficially to regulate the present migration of the honest poor from one part of our country to another.

The country at large now has a system of regulating immigration, which, with all its defects, does much good; and certain States, like New York, Massachusetts, and Rhode Island, have long since adopted a partial system of inter-State regulation. It is my hope that such measures will be extended and enforced so as to reach all the States of our Union. For this purpose, State Boards of Charities in some form are needed; and here we find another argument for their establishment in addition to those so well presented on the 15th inst. by Mr. Giles and Mr. Andrews (pages 19 and 26).

## XIV.

### Provision for the Insane.

#### CARE OF THE CHRONIC INSANE IN FAMILIES.

BY F. B. SANBORN.

It is now many years since the question of providing for a portion of the chronic insane in private families has been under discussion in this country as well as in Europe. The ancient establishment for insane persons at Gheel, in Belgium, is perhaps the best known example of family care for the insane; but this has been so often described that I need not dwell upon it here. Nobody proposes to introduce the Gheel system anywhere in America, although its results are instructive in regard to the general care of the chronic insane. The Scotch system of providing for the pauper insane in private dwellings is much more nearly adapted to American ideas, and has been administered under laws closely resembling those which are now in force or coming into operation in many States. So long ago as 1867, Dr. Howe, then chairman of the Massachusetts Board of Charities, suggested a modification of the Scotch system as applicable to Massachusetts; and, in 1871, Dr. Earle, then in charge of the Northampton Hospital, said in his report:—

To the extent of eight to ten per cent. of the State patients at the Northampton Hospital might be domiciled in private families without detriment to the community. They are the quiet, incurable demented,—the same class, indeed, as those who are in the licensed houses of Scotland. Whether they would be as well provided for as in the hospitals, or generally more contented than at those institutions, are matters of serious doubt.

This might well be doubted fifteen years ago, before the experiment had been tried; but, from a limited experience with patients of the class mentioned by Dr. Earle, and with some other patients not included in his description, the Massachusetts authorities have now no doubt that a small proportion of the chronic insane can be “domiciled in private families,” not only “without detriment to the

community," but with great comfort and content to themselves. And the object of this paper is to show precisely what has been the experience of Massachusetts in this respect. It is similar to that of Scotland, although the length of time and the number of patients under observation are much less than in the Scotch experiment.

There were antecedent reasons, drawn from the nature of the disease and from what we knew of the chronic insane, for supposing that these unfortunate persons might live safely and comfortably elsewhere than in asylums. Speaking of such persons, an English physician, Dr. Blandford, said in 1871, in his work on *Insanity and its Treatment* : —

How are you to know if a patient is capable of living beyond the walls of an asylum? The answer is simple,— Give him a trial. Many unpromising cases I have known to benefit so much by the change that they would scarcely be recognized. As the last generation did away with the fetters and mechanical restraints used in asylums, so let the present release from the restraints of an asylum all those capable of enjoying a larger amount of liberty and a freer atmosphere than that in which they now fret and chafe.

Dr. Bucknill, the eminent English specialist who quotes this passage in his work on *The Care of the Insane*, published by Macmillan in 1880, says further on the same subject : —

It has long been the accepted doctrine that insanity can only be treated curatively in asylums. But it must not be forgotten that most of the works on the treatment of insanity have been written by medical men connected with asylums, who, without insincerity, might express opinions founded upon their own limited knowledge. A wider knowledge of insanity as it occurs among the upper and middle classes would have taught them that a very considerable number of cases of actual insanity run a short course, and recover in domestic life, with no great amount of treatment, and that not, perhaps, of a very scientific kind. . . . But the experience of the Lord Chancellor's visitors proves that judiciously selected cases of tranquil lunacy may be made more comfortable and happy in very homely places of residence, and at a very moderate cost. Therefore, the development of this system is not for the advantage of the rich alone, but for that of all lunatics who are easily manageable and are not dangerous; and it is in the development of this system of domestic treatment that the greatest promise lies of the largest possible amelioration of the unhappy lot of those afflicted with mental disease.

Dr. Mitchell, the chairman of the Scotch Lunacy Commission, had not only made observations similar to these, previous to the full experiment tried in Scotland, but had shown, from hundreds of actual



cases, that family life for the chronic insane was practicable in many instances, and desirable whenever practicable. Dr. H. R. Stedman, a Massachusetts specialist, for some years second in authority at the Danvers Lunatic Hospital, had examined the Scotch experiment, both historically and as an observer on the spot, and had reached the same conclusion. This being so, Mrs. Leonard, then a member of the Massachusetts State Board, proposed and obtained in 1885 the passage of the following law, which has since been supplemented by an additional act giving greater authority to the State Board of Lunacy and Charity : —

[ACTS OF 1885, CHAPTER 385.]

SECTION 1. The State Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charity is hereby authorized to place at board where they may deem it expedient, and in suitable families throughout the Commonwealth, insane persons of the chronic and quiet class; and the cost of boarding such insane persons having no settlement in this Commonwealth shall be paid from the appropriation for the support of State paupers in lunatic hospitals, but the rate paid for their board shall not exceed the rate now paid in the State lunatic hospitals (\$3.25 a week at present).

SECT. 2. Bills for the support of such insane persons boarded in families at the expense of the State shall be payable quarterly, and shall be audited by the State Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charity, which shall present, at the end of each quarter commencing January, April, July, and October, a schedule of all such bills incurred during the quarter; and registers shall be kept by said board in such form that the auditor of accounts shall be able to verify such schedules, and, for the present year, all such bills shall be paid from the appropriation made in chapter nine of the acts of eighteen hundred and eighty-five for the support of State paupers in lunatic hospitals.

SECT. 3. It shall be the duty of the Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charity to cause all insane persons who are boarded in families at the expense of the Commonwealth to be visited at least once in three months; and all insane persons who are boarded in families at the expense of towns and cities, and whose residence is made known to said board, shall be visited in like manner at least once in six months by some agent of the Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charity.

SECT. 4. Said board shall be required to remove to a lunatic hospital or to some better boarding place all State paupers who, upon visitation, are found to be abused, neglected, or improperly cared for, when boarded under the authority of this act; and it may also remove to a lunatic hospital any insane person boarded at the expense of a city or town, who shall be found unsuitably provided with a boarding place.

SECT. 5. This act shall take effect upon its passage. [*Approved June 19, 1885.*]

This law went into operation July 19, 1885; and, in presenting it to the people of Massachusetts, Mrs. Leonard used the following language, in a communication extensively published in the newspapers : —

The writer has now in mind a good many gentle, mild, and harmless women, some aged, some younger, who have often piteously

besought that they might "go out" and have a home "somewhere else." We find them rearing canary birds, playing with dolls, or brooding in pathetic melancholy, weary of a great institution, and longing for domestic life, with its little details of interest. They stay in the hospitals because they have nowhere else to go. They have delusions, and cannot guide themselves. They require patience and kindness; but these, if conferred, will bless both the giver and receiver. Women, perhaps, will be most readily received; but there are men as well who would give little trouble in a country home. It is hoped that inquiry will develop the fact that there are a good many families living in the country, with comfortable homes and moderate incomes, who would be glad to add something to the latter by taking one or two mild and harmless persons from the hospitals and giving them kind care. The experiment recently made by the State in boarding out children, even infants, with much success financially, and also with benefit to the children, leads to the inference that the insane, too, could be thus maintained with success. The State children find good homes in families who have plenty of food and house room, and where the women of the family wish to earn a little pocket money and to do a good work of mercy at the same time. No difficulty is experienced in finding good homes for the State children, though many unsuitable applicants are rejected. The children come under close and careful inspection, and are quickly transferred, if not found to thrive. The insane will need, and will have, close supervision also. Some, of course, will be found on trial unfit for private life, and will be returned to the hospitals. It is believed, however, that many will succeed in living in families.

The anticipations of Mrs. Leonard have been more than justified by the result, although the number of patients placed in families under the law cited has hardly been so large as she expected. The first patients, two in number, were sent to families on the 10th of August, 1885; and, since that date, forty-six patients in all, nineteen men and twenty-seven women, have been boarded out under the law. Of these, thirty-two now remain in boarding places. The disposal of the fourteen patients who have been placed in families since Aug. 18, 1885, and who no longer remain there, is as follows: recovered or self-supporting, five; returned to the hospital, eight; died, one.

Of those returned to the hospitals, one has since been discharged, and has called on me at my office. Of those called recovered or self-supporting, two would usually be set down as recovered, according to hospital standards; and the other three are improved. Of the thirty-two remaining in families, two can probably soon be discharged as recovered, and one as self-supporting. Assuming these figures as reasonably correct, we may say that, out of fifty patients likely to be

placed out under any good system of boarding, four may be expected to recover during the first year, and four others to become self-supporting. This is a percentage larger than could have been predicted a year ago, and indicates that the selection of patients has been made from other classes than the strictly chronic insane. Our experience also tends to show that a system of this kind restores to the community a considerable number of persons who might otherwise remain hospital inmates for the rest of their lives.

Although the number of patients thus placed in private families in Massachusetts has been so small, and the time elapsed since we began the experiment so short, yet the variety of cases has been so great in respect to age, sex, social condition, form of disease, and locality of boarding place, that we feel confident the results will be much the same in several hundred cases, should we treat them in the same way. The whole number of the insane under public supervision in Massachusetts during a single year being nearly six thousand, I estimate that no less than five hundred could be provided for in private families, without danger to the community and with benefit to themselves. If this is correct, the population of a whole hospital of average size could thus be distributed in private families, where they would require a less costly supervision than they now receive in the ordinary hospital, and where their comfort would be greater, on the whole. They would also, judging by our experience, be more likely to find the means of self-support than does the ordinary inmate of a chronic asylum; and they would appeal much more to the care and attention of relatives than such inmates now do. The cost of building an asylum for five hundred inmates in Massachusetts has never been less for the last forty years than \$300,000, and this involves an annual outlay for repairs and improvements of at least \$3,000 more. It would therefore be a measure of economy to provide for the chronic insane, so far as is practicable, in private families, where no expenditure would be necessary for building and repairs.

It may be said, however, and it has frequently been said in Massachusetts, that families cannot be found that will suitably care for the chronic insane as boarders. It was, indeed, my own opinion that we could not easily find good families to receive these wayward and troublesome boarders at so low a rate as \$3.25 a week, which is all that we pay. The contrary has proved to be the fact; for we find applications from families every way suitable, enough to provide places for twice as many patients as we have been able to furnish. These families generally, but by no means always, live in the rural

towns, and are those of farmers or mechanics, sometimes the widow of a farmer or a mechanic, who are living comfortably, but without any large supply of ready money. The motive with them is ordinarily to increase their pocket money, particularly that of the women of the family, by taking boarders; and, although the rate is low for villages, it is sufficient in the farming towns. These families generally are of American stock, possessing the ordinary education, social habits, and philanthropic spirit of the New England people. They have not shown themselves inclined to take advantage of their insane wards or to stint them in the comforts of life. The best evidence of this is the almost universal wish of these patients to remain in the families where they are rather than go back to the hospital from which they were taken. Occasionally, I have found upon visitation that the family was too exacting in respect to work required of the boarder or too regardless of his comfort, and have removed such patients to better places. Occasionally, too, the boarder is unreasonable, and gives so much trouble that it is better to change his boarding-place or send him back to the hospital. Such cases have thus far been about one-seventh of the whole number. No deaths from disease and no serious illness have yet occurred among the patients boarded out, the one death reported above having been a suicide, which would very likely have taken place had the patient remained in the hospital. Care is, of course, taken to select boarders without any suicidal tendency; and, in this particular case, no such tendency had been noticed during the five years he had last been confined in a hospital.

In the selection of patients for boarding out, great care is exercised. They must be, in the first place, recommended by the superintendent of the hospital where they are found. They are then examined by myself personally, their medical and family record is looked up, and as much is learned as possible concerning their relations with the outside community. The families making application for boarders have been in the mean time visited, and their fitness ascertained, the effort being made, in all cases, to adapt the family to the patient, and the patient to the family. In only one instance have relatives taken a patient as a boarder, although they have in several instances come forward afterward, and assumed the whole support of the patient.

A majority of those placed in families, under this system, in Massachusetts, have been women; and this will probably continue to be the fact. This is partly because women are preferred as boarders

by the women of the family making the application, from a feeling that they will be safer and more trustworthy inmates; partly because there are more women than men among the Massachusetts insane of the chronic class; and partly because women, as a rule, are more willing to board in the manner described. But special care needs to be taken in boarding out young women, lest they should form connections which would be every way undesirable. For this reason, it was at first proposed that women under the age of forty should not be selected as boarders; but, upon the advice of Mrs. Leonard, this rule was not adopted, and a small number of young women have been boarded in families, under careful supervision. It is in this class that recoveries are most likely to occur. No ill consequences have been observed from this exception to the rule adopted in Scotland; and the practice of boarding out the younger women will be continued, in special cases, so long as it succeeds. The great majority of the boarders, however, will be persons who have passed middle life, and have spent a long time in the hospitals,—quiet, demented patients, such as may be seen in every State hospital, and such as occupy to some extent the county asylums of Wisconsin, which I have just visited. When the limit of one hundred patients is reached in those excellent asylums, the Wisconsin authorities, who have shown great wisdom in their arrangements for the chronic insane, would do well to adopt the boarding-out system as a means of providing for the surplus beyond one hundred who may be found in any county.

The visitation required by law in Massachusetts is once in three months for the insane boarded out; but, in fact, they are visited oftener, and some of them correspond with me freely. An experienced woman visits the women, and a medical visitor attends to cases needing medical visitation. I submit herewith the circulars issued by the Massachusetts Board concerning this subject, and the latest law thereon (Statutes of 1886, chap. 319): \*—

#### AN ACT

##### Concerning the Commitment and Custody of Insane Persons:—

SECTION 1. Every order or certificate for the commitment of an insane person, under the provisions of sections eleven and twelve of chapter eighty-seven of the Public Statutes, hereafter made by any of the judges therein mentioned, shall authorize the custody of the person therein named, either at the hospital or asylum to which he shall be first committed, or at some other hospital, asylum,

\* The circulars are here omitted. The law is one giving general authority over the unrecovered insane to the public authorities.

private dwelling, or other place to which said person may be transferred, if discharged without recovery from the hospital or asylum named in the order. In case said insane person shall be found to have a settlement in some town or city of this Commonwealth, the overseers of the poor in the place of his settlement shall have the legal custody of said person, after his discharge from the hospital or asylum, but not previously, and may make provision for his maintenance and treatment at such asylum, almshouse, private dwelling, or other place, as they may see fit, subject to the provisions of this act. In case the said insane person shall have no known settlement in this Commonwealth, then the State Board of Lunacy and Charity shall have the legal custody of said person after his discharge from the hospital or asylum, and may make provision for his maintenance and treatment at any place within this Commonwealth, or elsewhere, which said board may deem suitable.

SECT. 2. All insane persons who are now resident at the State lunatic hospitals or other hospitals or asylums for the insane in this Commonwealth, if discharged therefrom without recovery, shall be subject upon their discharge to the control of the overseers of the poor in their places of settlement; or, if without known settlement, to the control and supervision of the State Board of Lunacy and Charity, in the same manner as the persons mentioned in section second of this act; *provided, however*, that no insane person having property sufficient to support him, or friends able and willing to do so, shall be subject to the control of the overseers of the poor as a pauper, or restrained under their authority, except by a special decree of some court, for sufficient reasons, which shall be mentioned in the decree.

SECT. 3. The overseers of the poor shall not commit to nor detain in any almshouse, private dwelling, or other place, without remedial treatment, any insane person whose insanity has continued less than twelve months; but all persons suffering from recent insanity shall have the opportunity of medical treatment in some hospital or asylum, under the direction of a physician qualified according to the provisions of section thirteen of chapter eighty-seven of the Public Statutes, if they or their friends so desire.

SECT. 4. The duties enjoined by this act upon the overseers of the poor shall, in the city of Boston, be performed by the board of directors for public institutions.

SECT. 5. This act shall take effect upon its passage, and all acts and parts of acts inconsistent herewith are hereby repealed.

## THE RESTRICTION OF PERSONAL LIBERTY IN THE CARE OF THE INSANE.

BY DR. A. B. RICHARDSON.

Insanity is disease of brain tissues. This is accompanied by certain disorders of brain functions of peculiar and characteristic nature. The treatment of insanity is treatment of this brain disease. The character of this treatment is largely determined by the peculiar functional disorder incident to the physical disease. Chief among the functions of the brain that are disturbed and deranged by this disease is the *will*; in other words, the power of self-control. This power is weakened. What the individual would, and what he knows



to be right, that can he not perform ; and what he would not, what he knows to be wrong, by some strange, mysterious, propulsive force, he is compelled to do.

Now, inasmuch as this is a necessary accompaniment of all forms and every case of mental disturbance embraced under the term insanity, it would seem to follow that this impairment must find a substitute in control, to a more or less limited extent, by intelligence extraneous to the organization affected. That is, there must be a certain restriction of the freedom of action of the person. But this is not peculiar to the disease called insanity. It is an element in the treatment of disease in almost every form, and in every organ of the body. The feature special to insanity is that, owing to the peculiar mental condition of the patient and the impairment of his reasoning powers, this restriction must often be imposed in spite of his earnest protest. This being true, it follows that the power to impose this restriction should be carefully guarded. To insure this in as certain a manner as possible,—to protect the interests of those whose wishes are disregarded and whose personal liberty must be curtailed,—it should be established as an axiom that judicial action, based upon enlightened and disinterested medical testimony, is the only means by which this curtailment can be effected. This should not be limited to the detention of the insane in public or State hospitals ; but the State should recognize its obligation in every case of mental disease, whether in public asylum, private retreat, or in the home of the individual himself. But, under all circumstances, the party interested should be informed, from the commencement, of the true nature and intent of all the proceedings. The deception often practised upon these poor disease-wrecked intellects is a burning disgrace to our national love of equity and to our professional intelligence, and a stain upon the civilization of the nineteenth century.

The great question in the moral treatment of the insane is, How and to what extent shall this curtailment of liberty be made, how much restriction is of advantage, and what means are admissible in enforcing it ? Discussion of this question, as of any other, is of value, if conducted properly and for honest purposes. No one individual combines in himself all wisdom. No system can be considered absolutely perfect in adaptation, and wholly successful in the accomplishment of results. The results of experimental research are particularly valuable as evidences of the practical operation of any theoretical basis of action. It is necessary to have all aspects of a question revealed. But the inductions of an investigator influenced

by prejudice are unreliable and consequently dangerous. One who will not thoroughly examine the methods, and dispassionately hear the views of those who differ from him, can neither be intelligently and reliably instructed nor impart reliable instruction to another. He is competent neither as witness nor as judge. Rudely expressed sarcasm and insolent ridicule serve but to exhibit the weakness in the argument of those who make use of them. To designate a particular system or any especial feature of the care of the insane as the "cattle ranch system" may provoke a smile from a friend, but, in the face of any evidences of the success of such a system, such a sneer but advertises the failure in the supply of ammunition among its opposers.

For the term "Reform" I cannot acknowledge any particular affection. It implies too often a pre-existing condition of culpability and degradation. The phrase "New Era" savors too much of the catastrophic theory of world formation. I cannot believe that our ancestors knew nothing good. I cannot think that they were wholly depraved nor actuated always by mercenary and designing motives. But we do all consent that there should be a gradual evolution of better things out of what has preceded. As a result of the operation of natural laws, being more favored than our ancestors in the greater extent of our resources and in the more reliable character of our information, we should produce more nearly perfected results. In many ways are we more fortunately situated than our forefathers. Take the natural history of diseased processes. This has received much attention from investigators of late years; and their researches have materially assisted in clearing up doubts and in determining the value of systems of treatment. It has been found that many of these processes, in ordinary conditions of the system, are self-limited, and tend inherently toward recovery. It is a fair presumption that diseases of the brain are no exception to the general rule, and that those diseased processes which are the physical basis of insanity are of the same general nature as those affecting other organs of the body. Possibly, the original construction of the brain more frequently determines its pathological changes, and in a larger proportion of cases gives these an unfavorable tendency; yet it is doubtless true that in some cases of insanity there is a self-limitation to the disease of the brain upon which the insanity depends, and an inherent tendency toward recovery. For the sake of exact science, the influence of this factor in the treatment of the insane ought to be determined, or at least recognized.

Among six hundred and ninety-seven consecutive admissions to the Athens (Ohio) Asylum for the Insane, there had been two hundred and twelve well-authenticated previous attacks terminating in what was said to have been recovery. Of these previous attacks, ninety-eight were treated, and recovery took place at home.

It is by no means an insignificant event in the history of an individual that he shall be committed to an asylum for the insane. We should not, as matter of routine, recommend every case of insanity to be sent at once to an asylum. If the situation and facilities of the patient are such that skilled medical attention can be secured, and careful nursing provided, with the requisite supervision; if, when change of environment is found necessary, this can be effected by visits to friends,—it is due to such an individual that these means shall be utilized. If the history of the attack, the nature of the cause, and the nature and progress of the symptoms indicate a temporary attack, and relief by means within reach in the home of the patient, then he should be spared the forcible removal, the deprivation of liberty, and the odium which public parade and removal to an institution require. But as change of environment, and proper facilities for medical treatment and protection of the patient, are prime requisites in the treatment of acute insanity; and, as these can comparatively seldom be found outside of institutions especially designed in construction and appointment for the care of this class of diseases, such treatment must be considered as that best adapted under all the circumstances for the large mass of the insane. For probably ninety per cent. of all cases it will be found impossible to provide proper treatment in the home of the individual.

This institution treatment necessarily implies a considerable degree of restriction on individual liberty. The patient is removed, *volens*, from his home, and cannot return to it without the permission of some other person. He is required to go to some one institution, and cannot leave it without the consent of some other than himself. As before stated, whether the institution be public or private, no patient should be confined in it without the authority of legal enactment. He should be given the privilege of judgment by enlightened and disinterested courts, whose opinions should rest upon carefully scrutinized and competent expert evidence. This legal detention should be based upon the one broad principle of the *rights of the unsound mind*, which should govern in the construction, organization, and management of every institution for the care of the insane. The first consideration in such case is, What will best insure their

comfort and safe protection? All our ideas of equity attest that in proportion to the helplessness and need of any individual should he receive the consideration and care of the more fortunate; and what being on God's footstool is more helpless, more utterly at the mercy of another, than he who, his thoughts confused by diseased imaginings, by a law before which he is incapacitated from making a defense, is made prisoner,—a prisoner both in body and in mind?

Now, the atmosphere of an asylum for the insane is determined by the general principles upon which its control is founded. From these are evolved the details in its management, and by these will its whole character be impressed. In developing a plan of action for the administration of such an institution, a clear conception is required of the ends to be accomplished.

To provide all the possible aids for relieving disease of brain, and for restoring the individual to society sound in both body and mind, or, failing in this, to provide a home for him suited to his peculiar condition, which, on the one hand, will protect society and the patient from the results of dangerous and diseased reasonings, and, on the other, give to the patient every possible comfort and means of enjoyment, and the fullest liberty of movement compatible with his best interests, are without doubt the motives which should determine the methods of such institution work. How best can these ends be accomplished? Experience is here invaluable. No theoretical plan should be accepted, unless supported by practical tests; but, when so supported, it should be adopted, whether in accord with previous ideas or not.

I hope the Conference will pardon me when I state that whatever I may say of details and practical methods is the outgrowth and result of ten years' experience in institution treatment of the insane, and has stood the test of actual experiment.

In considering the necessity for any particular form of restriction on liberty, there should be kept prominently in mind the well-marked personality of the insane. They must be considered as individuals, with all their traits and peculiarities, though changed in intensity and in control over the individual by disease. The tendency of institution treatment is to look upon the insane as a class, and to lose sight of individual variation among them. This tendency should be carefully counteracted. I assume that that asylum for the insane is most nearly perfect which can be best adapted in all its appointments to the wants of the individual inmates, and in which the rights of the separate persons are least sacrificed to those of the class.

Now, insanity is a disease of wonderful diversity in type, and varies greatly in degree. No two cases are alike. Therefore, that asylum is best accomplishing its objects which makes most provision for this variation. The citizen adjudged insane by the courts, and sent to an asylum, at once relinquishes all voice in determining his rights. The law cannot in this connection recognize a limited responsibility and limited freedom of action; but, in the asylum, a more discriminating judgment is possible, and therefore proper. It is reasonable to assume that, in entering an institution, the insane person surrenders only so much of his liberty and yields to another only so much of his independent self-control as his own particular diseased condition makes necessary.

I was taught years ago, by my honored instructor and predecessor, Dr. Richard Gundry, that in the moral treatment of the insane the most essential feature is to make use of whatever degree of self-control the patient has remaining, in order to develop a greater amount, and thus by gradual and easy steps to bring him back to the normal environment and habits of thought of a sane individual.

There is one modifying element of institution treatment which is, perhaps, not always sufficiently considered. Much greater freedom can be permitted to the insane in asylums, under the modifying influence of careful supervision and a recognition of authority, than can be allowed the same individual in his home. From my own experience, I have ascertained that the insane in asylums can be given an amount of personal liberty with safety that is astonishing, when the conduct of the same persons at home is considered. There is a regard for authority, a respect for position, and an effort to fulfil promises, if intelligently understood, that will surprise one who has not experimented in this direction. Every insane person should be treated as being able and willing to heed a promise, until he shows an inability or unwillingness to do so. It is wonderful what an effect this often has. An exhibition of confidence in the honor of a patient is often the best remedial agent that we can employ, acting both as soporific and appetizer.

When an insane patient is sent to an asylum, is it to be inferred that his liberty should be restricted to the extent that he should be placed "under lock and key"? It has not been my experience that this is always a necessity. In an institution favorably situated, in a country district, with a trained community about it, and receiving its patients from ordinary and not distinctive communities, from twenty-five to thirty-three per cent. of all the cases can be safely given the

freedom of asylum surroundings, without the immediate personal supervision of employed attendants. This does not indicate that over this class there should be no supervision. This amount of liberty should be given to no one except upon the promise to use properly the special extension of freedom, and it should be continued only so long as certain essential regulations are followed. There will be great individual variation among this class. Some can come and go at will, even beyond the immediate premises; others must be restricted to the asylum grounds; still others should be required to take with them, when out of the ward, a companion from among the other patients, with whom they should remain while taking out-door exercise. Yet another class can be sent about the premises on errands, or to do certain work, under promise to return when it is completed, who at other times require the presence of an attendant to prevent them from violating their parole. The object should be, in each case, to determine from careful examination the amount of self-control possible in the mental condition of the patient, and upon this to base the treatment to effect its increase. Instead of diminishing supervision, this amount of liberty of personal movements requires it to be much more careful and discriminating. It is unquestionably true, however, that this much freedom can be safely given, and with decided advantage in the treatment; and, if so, then the insane are entitled to it as a right of which we have no authority to deprive them.

Of the sixty-seven or seventy-five per cent. of the inmates who cannot be safely given this much liberty, only those who are physically incapacitated should be deprived of exercise in the open air. In other words, the mental condition of no insane person should deprive him of out-door exercise. With a proper force of attendants, this out-door exercise need not be confined to walled enclosures of any kind. Indeed, in many respects, the use of such enclosures, generally called "airing courts," is a positive moral injury. There is the same danger in the use of these that is found in any other form of mechanical apparatus. The attendant will put too much trust in them. Patients will be left too much to themselves. The walls being intended as a substitute for attendants, they naturally think it unnecessary to exercise much watchfulness; and patients lie about on the ground, expose their persons, destroy shrubbery, and occasionally mount on the back of another, and escape over the wall. Omit the wall, and the necessity for watchfulness on the part of the attendant to prevent elopement will encourage careful habits in all directions;



and the result is that the patients are kept much neater, the shrubbery is not molested, the exercise is more extended, and, above all, the moral effect of more pleasing prospects and surroundings is greatly enhanced.

With this out-door exercise in the form of walks should be combined varied and modified employment. This should be of some useful nature, and suited to each particular case. It should not be severe nor too long continued; and the fact that it is intended for the benefit of the patient, rather than as a means of revenue should be kept prominently in mind. Constant labor, day after day, becomes a drudgery; and continual exercise in the form of walks, having no other useful purpose, becomes decidedly monotonous. A happy combination of the two gives renewed zeal to the pursuit of each, and in such combination are found the best results. No patient should be deprived of these means of enjoyment, and of the benefit from them as methods of treatment, on account of his mental condition. No matter how excited or disturbed he may be, a certain amount of out-door exercise will be found of benefit, and can be given, except in those cases where the physical condition, whether from exhaustion or acute disease, will not admit of such exercise. It is true that the acute insane, in many instances, need, above everything else, rest. Through the effects of worry, debilitating disease, or poisoned blood, there has been produced a condition of extreme exhaustion, which is often concealed by the irritability of the general nervous system. But this rest is more frequently brain rest than rest for other portions of the body; and, unless there is some special physical disease of other organs, this brain rest will usually be best secured by diverting the thoughts of the individual into channels as foreign to his former experiences and at the same time as pleasing as possible, while the other portions of his body are given moderate and health-restoring exercise.

To this end, the immediate surroundings of an asylum should be commodious, varied, and pleasing in prospect, and abounding in comfortable walks and shady groves. All possible consideration should be paid to the beauty of the landscape in the selection of an asylum site, and to the availability of all parts for the physical comfort and mental relief of the patients. An occasional picnic, a visit to a country fair or even to the ordinary peripatetic show, will serve to break the monotony of institution life with happy effect.

Two methods by which restriction of individual liberty among the insane is sometimes enforced remain to be considered. I refer to

seclusion or solitary confinement in rooms specially adapted for that purpose, and the use of mechanical appliances to restrain or confine some part of the body of the patient.

The use of the former is certainly liable to abuse. It cannot be denied that institutions may be, and are, safely conducted without resorting to it under any circumstances. Its use should never be left to the discretion of an attendant. It undoubtedly encourages destructive and homicidal tendencies, and often develops unclean and evil practices. That it may be of advantage as a temporary expedient to tide over paroxysms of absolutely unreasoning mania is certainly true. That no insane person need be kept permanently separated from other individuals is also true, and I cannot but believe such separation decidedly injurious and inadmissible. The amount found necessary will vary with the character of the asylum population and the long-suffering patience of the controlling forces. It should certainly not exceed one-tenth of one per cent. of the average number resident, and may be easily and without injury much less. It should be explained in this connection that by seclusion is meant forcible separation of a patient from others during the waking hours, and his confinement with locked door in any kind of an apartment alone.

The question of the use of mechanical appliances in the care of the insane is fast finding a solution in this country. It must be admitted that actual experience should be the only test. No one should consider himself competent to judge, who has not carefully experimented both with its use and its disuse. Not less than one year should be given to such experiment. The disuse of mechanical appliances, where formerly used, requires that the whole force of attendants be educated to substitute other methods for them. That it is possible to conduct an institution for the care of a general class of the insane without any such appliances has long since been proven. That institutions so conducted show as good results as the average of those in which such appliances are used is also proven. The recovery rate is as high, the death-rate as low, and the accidents as few, and the comfort and happiness of the patients certainly not diminished. Their modified use has plausible grounds for defence. It is so much easier to put on a patient some form of instrument by which he will be prevented from injuring himself or others or pursuing some injurious habit, and then leave him to himself, than for the attendant to remain with the patient, and by the influence of his presence, or by manual restraint, if necessary, prevent him from doing these things. But,

with the former method, we lose a large part of the benefit to be derived in such cases from the personal tact and influence of the attendant. Manual restraint can be better adapted to the exigencies of the individual case, and permits the use of reason and the explanation by the attendant of its purpose. Manual restraint should not be continued longer than is necessary. Mechanical apparatus, when once applied, is liable to be kept in use longer than the case requires. It is humiliating and irksome to the patient, and has an evil influence on the others about him. It is demoralizing in its effects upon attendants. Knowing that it is available, they will be affected by such knowledge. They will plead with sincerity the impossibility of keeping patients properly clothed or of preventing accidents without it. If they know that no resource of that kind is at their command, these suggested impossibilities disappear; and for their own convenience, if for no better reason, they will make use of every means which their tact can suggest to overcome the evil propensities of their patients. I know whereof I speak, when I assert that every patient in an institution of six hundred promiscuous insane can be kept clothed comfortably, even to the feet, without the use of any form of mechanical apparatus, and with solitary confinement amounting to a total of less than three hours per day for the whole number. This, too, can be kept up year after year. Who will say that, if these things are true, the rights of the insane do not demand the relegation of these unreasoning, unfeeling, and harsh methods to the dark closets and mouldy garrets of the barbarous ages of the past?

Step by step, year by year, and from institution to institution, no matter what statements may be made theoretically, we find, in practice, the gradual extension of enlightened, modified, and rational methods in this regard. We do not know what we can do until we try; and all I plead on this subject is that every one, charged with the care of these poor, helpless unfortunates, owes it to the cause of humanity to leave nothing untried which suggests an increase in their comfort or means of enjoyment.

## DIET AND VOLUNTARY EMPLOYMENT OF PATIENTS.

BY DR. CHARLES A. MILLER.

Food is anything which, absorbed from the alimentary tract, promotes the growth and nutrition of the body, repairs waste, and furnishes force for carrying on the functions of life. These various purposes for which food is taken can be perfectly subserved only by a mixed diet,—a diet consisting of a variety of substances taken from the animal and vegetable kingdoms, with some inorganic products in addition. The quality and quantity of food requisite are determined largely by the surroundings of the individual, his age, occupation, mental and physical health, idiosyncrasies, etc. No doubt, a uniform diet in any community would not conduce to the health, happiness, or prosperity of all. What suffices for the man of sedentary habits and refined tastes would not furnish the physical force necessary for the hard-working laborer. The invalid would turn in disgust from the food which gives delight and strength to his neighbor. In the natural state of things, each individual, guided by the special senses, by his own experience and that of preceding generations, chooses those articles of food which are best calculated to promote his well-being.

But the inmates of an asylum for the insane could not exhibit sound judgment in the selection of food, even if freedom of choice were allowed. Their tastes are often perverted: some are totally indifferent, some refuse all food, while others show a depraved craving for filthy and indigestible articles. They are of many nationalities; and they differ in taste, habit of body and mind. They are all suffering from mental, and many of them from physical, disease. Some are at work, others are idle.

It is plain that a uniform diet here would be absurd. Each patient should receive the kind of food and the amount which can be disposed of to the best advantage. This can be most readily accomplished by a system of classification of patients, such as has been for several years successfully pursued at Longview Asylum.

The inmates of the working wards are employed on the farm and grounds, in the garden, laundry, kitchen, sewing-rooms, engine-room, etc. They are given a diet which theory and experience teach is best suited to those who lead an active out-door life,—a diet rich

in starch, sugar, and fat, which are largely utilized as heat and force producers, and liberally supplied with albumen or nitrogenous material, which enriches the blood, produces firmness of muscle, and repairs the daily waste of tissues. The water, various salts, etc., required, are present in most food as prepared for the table. These people have plenty of meat three times a day, a variety of vegetables, wheat and oatmeal, bread and butter, fruit in season twice a week, pie and cake. Those who wish have lunch at 9 A.M. and at 3 P.M.

In the acute wards, the indications are different. Those suffering from acute mania are noisy, restless, sleepless, pulse rapid, skin hot and dry. They often refuse all food, and, as a rule, have eaten nothing for several days prior to admission. Unless properly treated, speedy death is inevitable. The energy expended in a case of acute mania is enormous, the loss of flesh rapid, and the waste of the tissues very considerable. If they will eat, they are given, in as large quantities as can be disposed of, food rich in albumen, as meat, milk, and eggs, and that in which sugar and starch are abundant, as vegetables, rice, wheat, oatmeal, or corn-meal mush. If they refuse to eat, they are given large quantities of milk and raw eggs, often one and one-half dozen raw eggs to one gallon of milk daily.

Milk contains all the elements essential to life, but must be given in larger quantities than could be voluntarily taken; while eggs are particularly rich in albumen, from which the rapidly wasting tissues are built up, and they are easily digested in the raw state.

In acute melancholia there is a low condition of vitality, slow pulse, low temperature, cold extremities, clammy skin, sluggish bowels. There is generally accompanying this condition an indifference to food or fear of it by reason of delusions. The indications here are to increase the temperature and quicken the pulse, effects readily produced by enriching the quality and quantity of the blood.

These patients are given a liberal diet, but are not fed so heavily as the laborers or acute maniacs; for, where there is no waste, over-feeding tends to produce lethargy,—a result just the opposite of that desired. As there is little inclination for food, fruits and delicacies are needed to increase the appetite by appealing to the special senses. As soon as deemed advisable by the physician, the patients in the acute wards are put to work. If the patient will do nothing else, he is given a few beds to make, a room to sweep, anything to attract his attention and interest. Inducements are offered in the way of better clothing, special diet, tobacco, etc. Praise judiciously administered is often effective.

The feeble demented and paralytics are given only such soft food as they can dispose of, as soup, milk, eggs, bread, rice, etc. None of them are given meat but once a day, many of them not at all. What nitrogenous material they require is contained in the milk and eggs. Solid food they are apt to bolt without mastication. What does not lodge somewhere before reaching the stomach passes through, irritates the bowels, and a diarrhœa is the result. They are all idle, there is no energy expended, the waste is almost nothing; and a diet such as the above keeps them in excellent condition.

The epileptics are given meat but once a day. Animal food greatly increases the quantity, and enriches the blood, and acts as a stimulant to the whole system. It increases the number and violence of the paroxysms, and greatly augments the already irritable disposition of this very troublesome class of patients. They are given a good hearty dinner. The supper consists of bread and butter and tea, with sometimes mush and syrup or fruit. After a light meal like this, they sleep soundly, and awaken in the morning in a good humor. Occasionally, an epileptic can be induced to work, when he is given a richer diet; and his energy is then expended in a legitimate direction. Patients in the convalescent and quiet wards, who do but little out-door work, are given a little meat twice a day, with a variety of vegetables, fruits, and such luxuries and relishes as they can appreciate and enjoy. They have plenty of books and amusements, but inducements to out-door work are always held out to them. Most chronic cases, if in good general condition, can be employed at something, if approached from the right direction.

At Longview Asylum, three wards, containing one hundred and fifty patients, have no screens or iron bars on the windows. The doors are always open, and the patients allowed the freedom of the grounds. Many of them visit their friends in the city whenever they request leave of absence. They are given better clothing than the others, tobacco, beer, and almost anything the house affords. By these means, many of the most violent patients are induced to work part of the time. There is certainly nothing more conducive to mental and physical health than plenty of work. After a patient has worked off his pugnacity into the handle of a pick or shovel, he is very apt to sleep soundly and to enjoy his food. In consequence, a feeling of bodily comfort and mental quietude is induced, which is the great desideratum in the treatment of insanity.



## SMALL ASYLUMS FOR THE CHRONIC INSANE: THEIR CONSTRUCTION AND MANAGEMENT.

BY A. O. WRIGHT,

SECRETARY OF THE WISCONSIN STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND REFORM.

The following is the result of five years' actual experiment in Wisconsin with county asylums managed by local authorities under close State supervision. Everything here recommended is in actual practice somewhere, and most of the recommendations are followed in all the Wisconsin county asylums for the chronic insane. They are perfectly feasible anywhere in the hands of officers who believe in the virtues of non-restraint, occupation, and moral treatment for the chronic insane.

*Buildings.*—The proper size should be for not less than fifty nor more than a hundred inmates. An institution for a smaller number than fifty costs too much for construction and for salaries in proportion to the number of inmates. It cannot afford to employ more than one attendant for each sex, which is often inconvenient. A larger number than a hundred is unwieldy, and puts the superintendent too far from the inmates. If there is a larger number to be provided for, separate institutions should be built.

The buildings should be of solid brick, with an air space in the walls to prevent dampness. All interior walls should be of brick. All doors between separate parts of the building should be of metal or metal-covered. All plastering should be directly on the wall. The roof should be of slate. The floors should all be deadened, and laid with hard wood. The basement floor should be cemented or made of concrete. The basement should not be used for the storage of vegetables, for laundry, or for living rooms.

The building should be two stories high. The height of the stories need not be more than ten feet. There should be stairways enough to provide two ways of egress from each part of the building. All stairways should be wide, with broad, low steps and hand-rails. All outside doors should open outward.

The heating should not be by means of stoves. Steam heating is in some respects preferable to hot-air furnaces, if proper ventilation goes with it. Particular attention should be paid to the heating and ventilation, and some one of the several good plans for these should be adopted. Some system of water supply is also needed, for daily use and for fire protection. A hose should be kept in each hall ready

to throw water on turning a stopcock. This hose should be so placed that any part of the building can be reached with water within one minute after an alarm of fire is given. To prevent meddling with it at other times, the hose should be placed in a small closet, locked, and the keys be held by officers and attendants only.

There should be no bars upon the windows, but iron sash, painted white. Every effort should be made to banish all suggestions of a prison character.

The use of water closets in the building is of doubtful wisdom, as they are so liable to emit sewer gas. It seems to be better to use two-story earth closets, connected with the building by light, open corridors.

The arrangement of the rooms may be upon several different plans. In any plan, the single bed-rooms should be few in number; and there should be ample and sunny sitting-rooms, convenient dining-rooms, and an assembly room and work-room. About four-fifths of the inmates can occupy associate dormitories. These dormitories should have about 40 square feet floor space for each inmate, arranged so as to be laid off in spaces 8 by 5 feet. Rooms 16 feet wide, and 20, 25, and 30 feet long, will accommodate 8, 10, and 12 beds each. The sitting-rooms should have a floor space of 30 square feet for each inmate. But, if the halls are to be used as the only sitting-rooms, the spaces should be more than this. Bay-windows add greatly to the cheerfulness of the sitting-rooms. Dining-rooms should have a floor space of about 15 square feet for each inmate. As there is no necessity for separating the sexes at meals, one large dining-room, which can be used also as an assembly room, is best.

Rooms for attendants, bath-rooms, and clothes-rooms should be provided in each ward. There should also be two hospital rooms, away from the wards, for the sick or those who need rest and quiet on account of nervous weakness. There should be provided for the superintendent and his family rooms of moderate size, sufficient for their private use and for keeping guests over night, as well as an office.

Whether the cottage plan or the congregate plan should be followed is of less consequence than that the buildings should be well constructed and convenient. The cottage plan, however, has several advantages that recommend it over the congregate plan.

All buildings should be so placed and planned as to admit sunlight freely. Every room should have the sunshine at some hour of the day.

*Land.*—A large farm is needed, both for economy in maintenance and to furnish occupation for the men. About four acres for each inmate is a fair allowance. All the land wanted should be procured at the beginning, because after purchases cost more and are not always possible at any price. The land should be fertile, and adapted to a variety of crops as well as to cattle. If possible, there should also be a sufficiency of woodland in addition to the farm proper, to furnish fuel for the institution and winter employment for the men.

The location should be healthy and easy of access,—not less than one mile nor more than three from the outer limits of a city or village having a railroad. Publicity is the best safeguard against abuse. The building site should be slightly elevated to set off the buildings and to afford good drainage. Land should be left in front and on the sides of the building for a lawn and pleasure ground, and the barns and pigstys put at a considerable distance back.

Cattle should be kept so as to provide one milch cow for from five to ten inmates. By soiling in summer and ensilage in winter, a much larger number of cattle can be supported on the land than by pasturage and meadow land. More labor will also be provided for the insane and the value of the farm increased by increased manuring.

*Officers, etc.*—The institution should be governed by a board of trustees appointed by the local authorities, who should make a full annual printed report, with a report from the superintendent and the visiting physician.

The trustees should appoint a superintendent and a visiting physician. The superintendent should appoint all other officers and employés, make all purchases, and keep all records and accounts under general rules adopted by the trustees.

Great care should be taken to have the right man for superintendent, and the right woman as matron. No considerations of party, or sect, or nationality, or residence, should be allowed to influence his appointment. He should be a man of energy, intelligence, business capacity, humanity, and power of governing men, and should have some knowledge of farming. His wife should be a good house-keeper, and a woman of like qualities with those named above. If, for any reason, she does not take an active part in the management of the asylum, then the superintendent should select some competent woman as matron.

Attendants should be employed at the rate of about one for each twenty insane persons, who should be men and women of intelligence, energy, and tact. They should not be afraid of work nor anxious to

display their authority. Either the matron or one of the female attendants should be a good dressmaker, and at least one of the attendants should be able to play on the cabinet organ or some other good musical instrument. The male attendants should be good farm hands, able to lead the men in all kinds of farm-work.

A good cook should be employed. A man is often better than a woman for that place. The best facilities for cooking should be furnished.

The visiting physician should be the best physician near by. He should not merely treat cases of disease, but should direct the sanitation of the household and advise in regard to the treatment of each insane person.

*Occupation and Amusements.*—Occupation is nature's medicine. Idleness is not good for the insane any more than for the sane. Occupation should be provided for all the insane possible, whether the occupation has a pecuniary value or not. The exceptions will be those disabled by sickness or old age, the extremely demented, and those whose delusions are such as to forbid work. Tact and patience will secure some work from many even of these. The experience in Wisconsin shows that over three-fourths of the chronic insane can be furnished occupation of some sort.

The following work can be expected of the chronic insane, under proper leadership: all the housework, including the washing, sewing, knitting, mending, and care of rooms; all the chores about the house and barn; all the cutting and piling of wood; all the farm-work; all the work in a large vegetable and small-fruit garden; all the grading around the buildings; and all the ditching, fencing, etc., on the farm. The difficulty will be, not to find people to do the work, but to provide work enough for the people to do, especially for the men in winter.

The secret of true economy is to purchase as little material and hire as little labor as possible. This is also the secret of providing healthful occupation for the insane. The mistake should not be made of purchasing ready-made clothing, stockings, bedding, etc., because they are cheap. It is better to purchase cloth and make it up. If wood can be bought at any reasonable rate, or, better still, woodland, it should be used instead of coal, for the sake of providing work for the men in winter. Do not provide machinery to take occupation out of the patients' hands.

Amusements should also be furnished in the shape of in-door and out-door games,—music, dances, picnics, sleigh-rides, magic lantern

exhibitions, Christmas trees, etc. Pains should be taken to induce the melancholy and the stupid to take an interest in these amusements. A cabinet organ, and a player for it, should be provided as an unfailing source of entertainment. Stormy days and Sundays, when there is less occupation, the insane will be found most troublesome. Music will then be a great help.

Religious services should be held on Sunday, if arrangements can be made. The services should be adapted to comfort rather than terrify. Catholic inmates should be given the benefit of Catholic services, if possible.

Reading matter, especially illustrated papers, should be furnished in abundance, but nothing heavy, sensational, or morbid.

A display of work done by inmates at the local fair, with due credit given to individuals, is a good thing for the inmates, as well as a matter of public interest.

*Liberty.*—All the arrangements of the asylum should be for a home instead of a prison. The insane should be managed by having a sufficient number of attendants, by providing occupation, and by kindly treatment, so as to avoid the use of restraints, if possible.

Restraints should only be used in extreme cases, and never without the knowledge and approval of the superintendent himself. A record should always be made of every case of restraint or seclusion in a book kept for that purpose, giving date, name of person restrained or secluded, kind of restraint used, reasons for it, length of time employed, and effect on the insane person.

In many cases, seclusion—that is, shutting up in a locked room, warmed and lighted—is best. For this purpose, it is well to have the windows of one room for each sex protected by a wire screen, and to have nothing movable in the room.

Mechanical restraint—that is, the use of strait-jackets, camisoles, leather muffs, leather mittens, crib beds, strapping in chairs, etc.—should never be used as a mere convenience to make it easier for the attendants. Even to have this apparatus in the institution at all is a constant temptation to misuse it, and a source of fear to the patients that it will be used. It is better not to have this apparatus at all; but, if any is kept in the asylum, it should be under the personal charge of the superintendent, and never be intrusted to attendants to use at their discretion.

When an earnest effort is made to avoid the use of both seclusion and mechanical restraint, it is remarkable how little is used. In the county asylums of Wisconsin, the average is about one-tenth of one

per cent.; that is, about one insane person in a thousand is in restraint or seclusion each day. It will be found that the more occupation is provided, the less restraint is needed.

Chemical restraint, so called,—that is, the use of opiate drugs, merely to keep troublesome patients quiet,—should never be used. Such drugs should only be used under the direction of a physician, when absolutely necessary to procure sleep, prevent exhaustion, or relieve intense pain. They are then given as a medicine, and not for the purpose of restraint.

With the proper number of attendants, it is entirely feasible to dispense with locked doors, and to allow the inmates to go out and in at their own pleasure during the hours of daylight. The only precaution necessary is to have plenty of occupation provided, and to require the attendants to know where every patient is every half-hour, and to guard against indiscriminate meeting of the sexes.

Airing courts, with high board fences, are not necessary nor desirable, and are too suggestive of prison pens to be allowed. They encourage bad habits in patients, and reflect on the part of attendants. Ordinary fences, with watchfulness and kindness, are sufficient to prevent the most demented or unruly from straying.

Quite a number of the insane can be trusted to go away from the vicinity of the buildings, on parole, without an attendant. Many can be trained to do certain regular work each day without being told each day to do it. Some can be trusted to take care of other insane persons, and can be used to advantage in that way. Temporary leave of absence can be granted to some to go home, when the conditions of the home and the patient are both favorable.

Almost complete freedom of correspondence should be allowed. The reasons for interfering with the correspondence of inmates should be very grave to warrant such a step. As a rule, however, the letters of the insane should be read before being sent.

Any reasonable amount of visits from relatives or acquaintances should be allowed, except in cases where such visits are an obvious and great injury to the insane person.

*Moral Treatment.*—This is difficult to define, but is one of the most important things in the care of the insane. Everything depends upon the kindness, firmness, and tact of those in charge of the insane. Few general rules can be applied, but each case must be treated by itself. The essential thing is not to treat the insane in the mass, but to individualize their treatment as far as possible. This is one of the principal reasons for making the asylums small.



The history of all the county asylums of Wisconsin is full of cases benefited by proper care and treatment.

The insane should be listened to patiently. Usually, their delusions will not yield to any amount of argument or ridicule, which should not be attempted. The better way is to divert their attention to some subject not connected with the delusions. Much trouble and many fruitless efforts may be required in certain cases before the right chord is struck. The superintendent and matron should not leave the work of waking up the dormant faculties of the insane to subordinates, but should give time and thought to it personally.

Much of this work will necessarily take the form of industrial training. Some most marvellous cures have been effected in the apparently hopeless chronic insane by patient, intelligent training to do one kind of work after another. Something has also been done with a few by teaching games or book knowledge. Something has also been done with many by appealing to their sense of propriety or to their honor. Privileges given on condition of good behavior, good clothes, good food well cooked and plenty of it, pleasant surroundings, kind words, trusts imposed upon them, consultation of their wishes in matters where a choice can be given, liberty, and congenial occupation will greatly improve all the chronic insane, and cause the recovery of some.

A very important part of this moral treatment is to make the filthy insane cleanly. Besides the means spoken of above, they should be taken to the privy late at night and early in the morning, and at proper times during the day, until habits of propriety are established. The chronic insane are creatures of habit far more than sane people are. By patience and perseverance, most of their bad habits can be eradicated, and good habits substituted therefor.

The insane should never be lied to. A promise made to an insane person should be kept as sacredly as one to a sane person. Deception of any kind should not be practised upon them.

They should not be fretted by teasing or scolding or threatening. No signs of fear of them should be shown, even if felt. The manners of all who deal with them should be natural, unaffected, and uniform. Attendants should not be permitted to irritate them, to bully them, or to order them around, much less to strike them or quarrel with them. They should not assume that the insane are to blame for their eccentricities, but should treat them as they would sick persons who are out of their head.

In all intercourse with the insane, their mental infirmity should be

borne with patiently. Bad words and bad behavior from them should not be resented as if they were responsible persons.

New attendants will have to be specially trained in these principles. An occasional meeting of the officers and employés to discuss informally the treatment of the insane will also do the attendants much good.

In all this treatment of the chronic insane, it should be remembered that they are people with damaged brains which are more or less capable of being repaired, but that such repairing is a slow process, and requires a combination of material and moral conditions which we can supply. If they cannot be cured, they can at least be improved in their mental condition, and treated as the wards of society instead of its enemies.

XV.

**Provision for Imbeciles.**

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REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON PROVISION FOR  
IDIOTIC AND FEEBLE-MINDED PERSONS.

BY DR. ISAAC N. KERLIN.

The first report of your Standing Committee on Provision for Idiotic and Feeble-minded Persons, delivered at the Conference of St. Louis, 1884, discussed the numbers and distribution of this unfortunate class, their susceptibility to educational, moral, and physical training, the obligations of the State and society to them, and presented plans and suggestions for the organization of State institutions wherever these unfortunates shall be accepted as the wards of a Commonwealth.

The second report made to your Conference, at Washington last year, awakened attention throughout the country. Statistical in its character, and dealing with the much or little that had been done by specific-legislation in twenty States of the Union and by Congress itself, it was supplemented by that ethical and thrilling description of the training of a feeble-minded child, uttered by the late lamented James B. Richards. Published even imperfectly in your Proceedings, it is a classic in the language of modern charity. It has been copied into a hundred publications, and has animated the eloquence of as many pulpits in our land. The discussion which followed is a memorable one in the annals of the Conference: that evening at the national capital, given by you to God's innocent ones, will bless you forever.

Because of the unfortunate absence of our chairman, Dr. Stewart, his subordinates on the committee can give only a brief supplement to what has been done already, gathering a few points from the reports of fifteen institutions, as made during the past year.

MASSACHUSETTS.—The Massachusetts School for the Feeble-minded at South Boston has on roll one hundred and fifty-one. The

legislature, by an act approved June 18, 1886, established two departments, the educational and the custodial. The first, placed under the State Department of Education, may draw from the State treasury \$20,000 per annum, conditioned on the corporation receiving gratuitously a certain number of educable children of idiotic or feeble mind. The latter department, defined to be for the care and custody of those feeble-minded persons who are beyond the school-age or not capable of being benefited by school instruction, is known as the custodial department. The rate of charge in this branch is \$3.25 per week, collected from guardians, or from the place of settlement in the cases of dependence, or, if settlement is undetermined, directly from the State. This custodial or asylum department does not seem to have been provided for, unless a farm and buildings at Medfield are so considered.

Beautifully located among the hills of Barre, Mass., and in the thirty-sixth year of its prosperous growth, is the private institution of Dr. George and Mrs. C. W. Brown, now caring for eighty children. It might be thought needless to apply to these children of affluence the spur of industrial occupation and reward; but not so. Such invaluable aid to development is not overlooked. "Under the direction of one of our men, several boys have done considerable carpentry during the past season, and are at present engaged in making an addition to one of our buildings, to be finished as a bowling alley.

"The care of poultry is another source of occupation for some. In the summer time, some of our larger boys do simple work on the farm; and several have little patches of garden, where they have peas, beans, corn, and a few other vegetables, care of which furnishes an occupation, and is an educator in many ways. They are exceedingly interested in this sort of occupation, and deem the few cents they get for their little messes of vegetables a great sum."

CONNECTICUT has its delightful farm and home school at Lakeville for ninety children, sixty-six of whom are State beneficiaries. The necessity of adding trades for those advanced beyond the school and gymnasium is dwelt upon by the superintendent, and the still more urgent and practical demand is uttered for the care and protection of innocent girls and young women. The auxiliary farms of this rural institution enable the management to take State beneficiaries for the low charge of \$2.50 per week. \$5,000 were appropriated by the legislature of last winter for the erection of a small custodial building.

NEW YORK.—The State institution at Syracuse is maintaining four hundred and thirteen inmates, at a per capita cost of \$3.24 per week, or \$168.48 per annum, exclusive of clothing and extraordinary repairs and improvements. A spacious building, completed this year, will furnish the opportunity of retaining feeble-minded girls, who now in the institution cannot be prudently distributed in the community, and also give reception to others of the same ages and liabilities.

The superintendent, referring to industrial occupation, says, after enumerating the quantity of sewing done by the girls, mat and brush making, grading, etc., by the boys:—

It is becoming more and more the purpose in all institutions of this kind to incline the methods of training, so far as practicable, toward some form of industrial occupation. It must be recognized that this large class whom we instruct, care, and provide for, is, if left to themselves, an extremely dependent and helpless one. They are brought here in youth mainly, but each year of their lives are growing toward maturity; and many of our numbers have already passed the age when they ought no longer to be kept within the confines of a school-room. They are, of course, as compared with normal humanity, short-lived; yet a large number pass well into the years of adult life, and not a few into ripe manhood and womanhood.

It is to make them of some use to themselves or to the world after their maturity that we must apply our efforts at teaching. We cannot make of them scholars or skilled artisans able to go out into the world and compete with ordinary mortals; but we can teach many of them,—the boys, to be useful in the shops at trades, in the garden with tools, or on the farm at manual labor; and the girls, in the laundry, the bakery, the kitchen, or with the needle, the brush, or the broom. Besides all this, there are many, as they reach maturity, who can be taught to become exceedingly useful in the care of their more helpless kind. By this, we do not mean to imply that we are disposed to convert our school-rooms into shops and trades-rooms. For the children and youthful portion, we believe there cannot be any substitute worthy of consideration devised to take the place of the school-room; but we would so harmonize and combine school-room instruction with industrial training that the step from the former to the latter may be made easy and pleasant. In short, the future of these unfortunates should be kept in the foreground of all methods, so that, when they are men and women grown, they are not abandoned, and left as simply "cumberers of the earth," but helpers of each other, of their friends or parents or of the State, the parent and guardian of us all.

The first annual report of the Trustees of the New York State Custodial Asylum for Feeble-minded Women marks an important

era in the development of the institutions represented by your committee. The inmates are thus referred to:—

This class of feeble-minded women is found with every county poor,—mostly friendless, easily overcome, drifting into the poor-house to-day and out to-morrow, only to return to give birth to illegitimate children. As an evidence of the loose and inefficient supervision of the poorhouse system, we regret to say that, of the inmates already received into this asylum, about twenty per cent. of the whole number had borne illegitimate children, several of them more than one, and one as many as four.

Here they are attended by those of their own sex; as far as possible, taught habits and pursuits of industry. About three-fourths of their number are able to perform regular daily tasks of sewing, knitting, and housework. With their daily tasks, their feeble minds directed, their time taken up in work or exercise, their days are spent in safety, pleasantness, and peace.

The present number maintained at Newark is one hundred and forty-three. An addition is to be made this year of a building 60 by 128 feet, and two stories high.

Thus has New York State taken a leading position in an all-comprehensive regard for every class and grade of idiocy.

In PENNSYLVANIA, at her Training School for Feeble-minded Children, on the 11th of this month, was laid the corner-stone of a cottage building for eighty girls, to fulfil the intention of the custodial work just referred to as in happy execution in New York. There are now cared for at Elwyn five hundred and seventy cases of all grades of imbecility in three special and separate departments: the department of the training school, two hundred; the industrial department, one hundred and forty-four; and the department of the Hillside Homes (or the asylum), of two hundred and twenty-six beds. The per capita cost for the past year was \$213.70, inclusive of extraordinary repairs and improvements, and about one-third the supply of clothing. The rate at the Hillside Homes, or asylum department, was \$3.10 per week.

The State will continue to foster this institution, sustained as it is by an abounding popular sympathy, and warmly indorsed by our State Board of Charities.

A department for epileptic feeble-minded children will be built next year, there being, of five hundred and seventy inmates, eighty-six who are afflicted with this serious complication.

It is believed that of those feeble-minded women and girls, such as are contemplated in the New York provision at Newark and in the



girls' cottages at Elwyn and Syracuse, many may find life employment as assistants in the care of the more helpless,—employment for which their simple-minded devotion under right direction admirably fits them. The cost of their maintenance may thus be reduced to a minimum, while their lives are made happy and unobnoxious.

The legislature of MARYLAND for the third time failed to pass a bill providing for the organization of a State institution for the feeble-minded. In the mean time, the private home of Dr. Samuel J. Fort, at Ellicott Mills, ten miles from Baltimore, was opened on June 1, 1886, as the "Font Hill Home and Training School for Feeble-minded Children." This may form the *nidus* of a State work.

OHIO.—As has been hitherto reported, this State is in the van of our work in America. Seven hundred and forty children are provided for by legislation, at an annual per capita cost of \$163.34.

The educational and industrial departments of the institution at Columbus are models, and their work of the best. Industrial training is nowhere more thoroughly recognized as the chief formative of mind and morals.

The importance of a custodial department separate, under the same general management, is fully realized by Dr. Doren and his board, and has been urged with pertinacity for years by the State Board of Charities. This is now proposed in the shape of a farm of one thousand acres for cultivation by feeble-minded adults, the product of whose labor will, it is believed, materially diminish the cost of support in the general institution.

The unfortunate girls heretofore alluded to in various parts of this report are, and have always been, under permanent detention at Columbus, employment having been made for them, and their lives kept innocent.

INDIANA.—The unwise and unintelligible union of the Soldiers' Orphans' Home and of the Asylum for Feeble-minded Children, at Knightstown, continues. Its dissolution is promised next winter, or at least by early legislation. The present number in the department for imbeciles is eighty-seven, at an annual per capita cost of \$127. Notwithstanding its political, and hence thoroughly sorry, management, and the frequent revolution of its personal officering, it is grateful to quote from its present superintendent the following case, which illustrates at once scores of others, every year, in this beneficent field of charity:—

We received into our institution, eighteen months ago, a girl of seven years. At the age of five, she suffered from an attack of cere-

bro-spinal meningitis, which left her mind impaired to such an extent that she became, what seemed to parents and friends, a hopeless imbecile. She would crouch on the floor for hours, covering her face with her hands, and would utter wild shrieks, as if in pain. She seemed devoid of shame, tearing her clothing from her, and showing, decidedly, that she wished no clothing. She would not sit at table, but would crouch in a corner, when hungry; and bread and black coffee were the only food she would take. This she ate from a tin cup, using her hand to convey the mixture to her mouth. To the calls of nature, she paid no attention; and, altogether, she seemed to hold out little encouragement for improvement. Her wilfulness and persistency in the above-mentioned habits seemed, for a while, unconquerable; but now, at the end of eighteen months of careful and patient labor, we find the little girl almost transformed. She sits quietly, in obedience to command; takes part in little kindergarten games, indulged in by the more intelligent children, with seeming enjoyment. She shows a desire to be clothed by putting on her own garments, as far as she is able, and going to the older children for assistance in the completion of her toilet. She now sits quietly at table, and will eat bread and milk or bread and gravy, and will occasionally partake of vegetables. She is attentive to the calls of nature, always running to one of the more intelligent children and making her wants known by signs. She speaks a few words, and shows a great fondness for music. If so much can be accomplished in a few short months, what may we not hope from years of patient labor?

THE ILLINOIS Asylum for Feeble-minded Children at Lincoln shelters and educates four hundred and twenty-five children, at a per capita cost of about \$180. During the past year, a hospital building has been erected, which largely serves the purpose of a custodial department. Feeble-minded children, if epileptic, are still denied admission. Greater interest has been attached to industrial training than formerly, with results as satisfactory as elsewhere.

KENTUCKY is represented in this latest charity by her State provision for one hundred and sixty children at Frankfort. We regret that the warm-hearted Kentuckian, Dr. Stewart, is not here to tell you of the life of usefulness he has infused into this one solitary Institution for Feeble-minded Children of the Old South, and the remarkable results he has accomplished in industrial training. In a personal letter, just received, he says: "We are making all the shoes for our own use, and also supplying the asylum at Anchorage. A demand has arisen in Frankfort, so good is our work, greater than we can supply, and at prices which pay exceedingly well."

IOWA gives State support for two hundred and fifty-eight children in her rapidly developing institution at Glenwood, the per capita cost of whom is \$163.03. Buildings are now in course of erection, which

will increase the capacity to four hundred. The importance of a special building for children suffering from epilepsy is dwelt upon, and also of a large addition of land, on which to utilize the labor of inmates of adult or approaching adult years. Citing the census statistics of 78,895 feeble-minded in the United States, of whom 2,314 are residents of Iowa, the directors boldly and wisely declare: "Opinions may differ on what the policy of the State should be in caring for *all this class*; but we believe that Iowa should continue to increase the facilities, until all reasonable demands shall be satisfied. It is not only a charitable, but a conservative thing to do." Moving on this policy, a custodial department has already been established, and legally sanctioned by a special enactment of the legislature.

The KANSAS Institution for Feeble-minded Children has one hundred under its present and temporary roof at Lawrence, to be transferred in April next to its valuable property of one hundred and sixty acres in Winfield, Cowley County, where excellent buildings have been put up for its accommodation.

NEBRASKA has rapidly proceeded in the erection of buildings at Beatrice, at a cost of \$50,000, which will be opened shortly for the reception of many waiting children, for whose support an appropriation of \$35,000 was made March, 1885.

CALIFORNIA has opened its State Institution at Santa Clara. The location is said to be unfortunate for its development.

Lastly, we turn most approvingly to MINNESOTA's noble offering for this charity. Located on the beautiful bluff on Straight River, Faribault, with a singularly attractive country adjacent, exciting the kindest interest of an intelligent and warm-hearted community, and with every advantage of space, fertility of soil, and amplitude of water, we know of no institution in the United States so happily and wisely begun. In fact, like the noble State itself, this institution is only embarrassed by the richness of its opportunities.

The school is an acknowledged success. Its development into all the departments of a great institution is only a question of time, and the readiness of its management to seize their natural advantages.

Whether WISCONSIN or MICHIGAN shall be the first to wheel into the line of progressive States as regards this work is dependent greatly on some of the men who are most prominent in this Conference. To the observer of only partial knowledge, it would seem that Wisconsin will set the example. The resolutions of the Wisconsin State Board of Health, at their meeting on the twenty-second

day of June last, announce so tersely the principles which govern this movement in behalf of our humble clients that we here reproduce them:—

Whereas the idiotic and feeble-minded constitute a dependent class which can be properly cared for only by trained and competent instructors; and

Whereas no sufficient provision for the care of the health or welfare of this peculiarly unfortunate, rapidly increasing, and largely irresponsible class now exists in Wisconsin; and

Whereas it has been amply proven by experience in other States that even the lowest of these classes may, under skilled management and proper education, be made happier in themselves as well as less burdensome and less dangerous to the community, showing it to be a matter of wise practical economy as well as of humanity thus to care for them,—therefore,

*Resolved*, That, in the judgment of the State Board of Health, it is the duty of our legislators to make ample provision for the custodial care and education of the idiotic and feeble-minded of the State, in suitably constructed buildings and under the management of trained and experienced teachers and attendants.

Outside the institutions, and independently of legislatures, there have been during the year volunteer agencies of a most beneficial character, looking to the alleviation of this class. One of the strongest and certainly the most sympathetic of these has been the movement within the National Women's Christian Temperance Union, by which the care of mental and moral incapables has been added to the numerous lines of its work. The committee, says its chairwoman, "proposes to press upon the public attention the claims of this large and increasing class, and through a constituency of intelligence to bear effectively upon legislators." The lady adds, "The importunity which our Saviour so aptly illustrates by a sorrowing woman is likely to disturb the slumbers of indifferent law-makers in States where no provision is as yet made for this pitiably helpless class."

Summarizing this report of a year's observation, we would say:—

1. There is a marked increased attention in all our institutions to the importance of industrial training.

2. There is no abandonment anywhere of the school idea of the earlier superintendents. On the contrary, the thorough introduction of the kindergarten into many is improving the character of our schools, and aiding the development more surely of the industrial department.

3. Everywhere is recognized the importance of the so-called custodial department; but nowhere would it seem desirable to organize a work in any other way than by starting with the school, and gradually adding the custodial as the final development of a general institution.

4. In the fully developed institution, the custodial class will stand to the school department numerically as four to one. It is therefore advised that, in the location of a State institution, a liberal purchase of land shall be made, so that all the departments shall be embraced under one administration; that the amusements, comforts, and good cheer of the school shall reach even the asylum; and that the trained capacities of the stronger shall be made available for the aid of the weaker and for the diminution of public charge.

5. Epileptic imbecile children should be contemplated in the State provision, and, as early as possible, special opportunities be granted them for their care and treatment.

6. The recognition in the kindergarten and in the primary schools of *congenital moral imbeciles* is believed to be possible. Such children, although often precocious in the power to acquire school learning, should be withdrawn from the community before they reach crime age, and are best cared for under the discipline of institutions for the idiotic and feeble-minded.

Finally, your committee cannot close this report without a brief reference to an examination into the CAUSES OF IDIOCY, as presented by a special study of some hundreds of cases.

1. As a very large proportion of imbecile children are first-born, and as a very large proportion of imbeciles are said to have been delicate in their infancy before any imbecility was noticed, may not the skill and attention of the physician be exercised more directly for the instruction of young mothers in the intelligent care of their babes, especially in families where hereditary tendency to mental and other disorders is known to exist?

2. It will be seen by our tables that in ten families of each hundred there have been infelicities and antipathies arising from unsuitableness of the parties in contract to live with each other, and of a character so unfortunate that the parents have been willing to state these as the supposed cause of their children's congenital blight. Is there not in this a suggestion that a better race will be developed when women shall regard a shameful and unfortunate marriage as more shameful than dying unwedded, and when all shall grant a difference of nobility in favor of a cultured and useful unmarried woman over an unsuccessful wife and unfit mother?

3. If in twenty-five per cent. of idiocy there is maternal anxiety and over-tax sufficient to enter as a direct or accessory cause of the child's infirmity, may we not urge as a rule that, during the whole gestative period, safety to the body and brain of the embryo de-

mands exemption of the mother from exhaustive duties and hyper-exaltation of the nerve centres either in housework or in frivolity, particularly in families of neurotic and consumptive disorders?

4. That fifty-six per cent. of idiocy should descend from strumous and consumptive families impels the conclusion that any prudent man or woman should avoid intermarriage with this diathesis, if through such union he or she intensifies this condition in a line of children of feeble bodies and frequently defective minds.

5. That in thirty-four per cent. of idiocy there should be the family history of alcoholism, with cases of epilepsy, nervous disease, and crime in the same inheritance, is an argument for the restraint of alcoholic inebriety.\*

6. That the children of epileptics should inherit so frequently the same dread disease, or its co-relations of chorea, insanity, and idiocy, should deter marital union of those afflicted with epilepsy.

7. That in twenty-seven per cent. of cases of idiocy, we find as a concurrence imbecility and insanity begetting idiocy, introduces a very serious question for the law of the State to settle; namely, whether marriage of the evidently unfit shall be tolerated, and whether pauper imbeciles shall continue to entail on the community a burden of woe and expense that heaps up in misery the further it descends. It seems incredible that, in an enlightened community, a woman should go on giving birth in succession to five microcephalic idiots, three of whom survive to be supported at the expense of the State so long as they shall live. It seems incredible that a female insane pauper should have been discharged two successive times from a county house, returning to a drunken husband to become twice *enciente* with defective or idiotic progeny. It seems incredible that a husband living with a wife who is known to be insane should go on bidding into being imbeciles and incompetents, apologetically explaining that his wife was in better health when *enciente*. It seems incredible that there should be a county house in any enlightened State where the inbreeding of paupers and pauper imbeciles of the same parentage is possible until a large family of wretched creatures is issued to scatter and propagate an infamous blood.

We pass these sickening details without further comment.

\*Dr. Fletcher Beach, of the Clapton Asylum for Idiots, England, ascribes thirty-eight to forty per cent. of idiocy to alcoholism. The Fourth Conference for the Care of Idiots in Germany agreed that inebriety was a principal cause of idiocy, and therefore declared itself in concord with the efforts of the German Society against the Abuse of Spirituous Liquors.



## THE STATE'S DUTY TOWARD EPILEPTICS.

BY DR. GEORGE KNIGHT.

The work of caring for children of feeble mind presents itself in so many different aspects that, within the limits of a short paper, it would be impossible to treat the subject as fully as it deserves. The presentation of the subject made at the last two Conferences by specialists in this work must have given you a clear idea of what has been done and what we are trying to do for the feeble-minded in our several States. It is needful only to take up some particular branch of this special work, and consider it more in detail.

With that end in view, I have chosen as a topic for special consideration the needs of the epileptic, because, as a class, not only are they the most pitiable of all our unfortunates, and the least well cared for, but because by timely provision for them we shall undoubtedly lessen the aggregate of idiocy, imbecility, and crime.

I believe that, if the ambition of all who are brought closest to this most needful, saddest, and in many ways most discouraging of all charitable work could be summed up in one word, that word would be "prevention." What we would all bring about, if we could, would be the prevention of feeble-mindedness in all its grades, from that of the idiot to the imbecile so bright in all respects but a moral one that he is called by the name of criminal. The side of our work which could bring the quickest, most enduring results in this direction seems to me to lie in the course it is entirely possible to pursue with the epileptic.

In my own experience in tracing the histories of imbecile children, I have found that epilepsy existed of itself, or as a complication, in over sixty per cent. of the cases examined. So fully have I been convinced that epilepsy is one of the most active factors in the result we call imbecility that I took steps to ascertain whether my experience had been shared by my associates. Taking the statistics of one institution alone,—Dr. Kerlin's, of Pennsylvania,—I find corroboration of my belief in the fact that, in the examination made by him of the histories of three hundred imbecile children between the ages of five and sixteen, "sixty-six were found to be epileptic, one hundred and fifty-six had in their antecedents the history of the epileptoid family of diseases, but were not epileptic at the time of the examination, leaving but seventy-eight of the whole number examined uncomplicated with epileptic disease, or only twenty-six

per cent." In sixteen per cent., epilepsy existed either in the parent or grandparent.

In the face of proof so unquestionable and absolute as this, what preventive steps should we take? Is there not an imperative need of such immediate action upon our part as shall hereafter make such results impossible? Is it not apparent that already we have delayed too long in the placing of special provision for epileptics upon a footing with our other preventive work?

One of the first and most important measures we must advocate would be such a framing of the laws governing marriage in our several States as would make the marriage of an epileptic a crime. From my own knowledge, I can cite the case of an epileptic woman who became the mother of fifteen defective children. Eight died in infancy from lack of vitality, two inherited the epilepsy, two were fairly teachable imbeciles, and the other three had sufficient intelligence to marry and reproduce, according to the laws of heredity, the mother's experience. This instance is only another proof of what we must all believe,—namely, that like produces like; and, therefore, as a natural sequence of things, epileptics in the majority of cases *must* produce defective children.

Hitherto, in the majority of our institutions for the training of imbeciles, it has been impossible to give the epileptic that attention and special treatment which should in every case compel to the utmost the best results. As I have already said, the care of the epileptic is the slowest, most painful, and the most discouraging of all the work that comes under the head of care for the feeble-minded. For this reason, it has been difficult to secure, at the usual rate of wages, the class of persons we need as attendants. At the same time, our work has been new. The pressure of the needs of the brighter class, who would receive the most immediate benefit, has been very great; and there has been always the necessity of giving to a sceptical public the reasons for the faith that was in us. All these circumstances have conspired to compel us to give the work among epileptics a less important place than justice and humanity demanded. But, notwithstanding all these drawbacks, a few of our institutions have been fortunate in being able to make a beginning. The results have more than justified our belief in what the future will grant us, if we can secure for the epileptic that which we have already secured for the feeble-minded; namely, time, place, and opportunity.

In answer to a list of questions which I sent to each of our insti-

tutions for the feeble-minded, I learned that six have been able to make some special effort for the epileptic; that, in these six institutions, two hundred and two epileptics have been under special treatment; that

107, or 53 per cent.,	were improved by the special treatment.
93, or 46 "	were not improved by the special treatment.
52, or 26 "	had no spasms for one year.
35, or 17½ "	" " two years.
23, or 11½ "	" " three "
17, or 8½ "	" " four "

While from four institutions alone came the answer of eight and one-half per cent. cured.

What stronger enforcement of the plea I am making do we need than this? If there had been but *one* per cent. cured, is it not worth our while to save even that number? Or, if there had been none cured, would not the per cent. of those who were simply helped make it our duty and privilege, as humanitarians, to provide a chance of cure for all who are afflicted with this terrible curse of epilepsy?

For the benefit of those to whom an epileptic is an unknown quantity, I will cite an actual case.

Picture to yourself a bright-faced boy of twelve years old, with well-developed brain and sturdy limbs, reduced by this fearful malady to a mere skeleton physically, and mentally to an apparent total wreck. His seizures were frequent and violent; and, in the interim between them, his personal habits were scarcely above those of the brute creation, and his language appeared like the expression of a creature even lower.

Under the influence of home care and proper medical treatment, he became a healthy, vigorous young man, entirely capable of self-support. The mind has more than kept pace with the body in the attainment of health and vigor, until the thirst for knowledge seems almost to amount to a passion. As a natural result of these improved physical and mental conditions and the same genuine home care, he has become a new being morally. Tender of conscience, careful and pure in expression, thoughtful and kindly in action, he would not be recognized by one who had not seen the change going on as the same person who seven years ago seemed a hopeless victim of loathsome disease.

Who would say this case was not worth saving? Would not every one confess that all the time, patience, and money expended on

efforts which might repeat this case a hundred-fold would be spent upon one of the most pressing and most noble charities which it has been your privilege to establish and advance?

Just here let me answer a question which my past experience makes me sure is in the minds of many. If such results are reached by caring for this class, why not provide for epileptic imbeciles to the exclusion of other imbeciles? My answer is that, with the means at our command, it is our duty to take that course which shall bring the greatest good to the greatest number in the shortest space, and with the least outlay of time and money. Popular belief has been that the epileptic can wait better than the bright imbecile, who, we all know, if not taken at the right time, may develop into the criminal, and who will, if a male, seize his first opportunity to marry; if a female, will be in many cases at the mercy of the first unscrupulous man who crosses her path. All of you who have extended your efforts of correction to our almshouses have found ample proof of this last statement.

On the other hand, to do our best for the one class, we must exclude it from the other. We cannot do hospital work in the school-room with good results on either side. It is the unanimous opinion of those superintendents who have had the most experience in this work that the influence of association with epileptics is injurious to imbeciles not so affected. Neither can we get the best results by isolating epileptics. Imitation, which is strong even in the lowest grades, serves a most harmful purpose among those who are compelled to witness only the routine of mere hospital life. Therefore, we cannot secure the results we aim for by establishing simply hospitals for epileptic imbeciles. I was more than convinced of the truth of this by a late visit to the Epileptic Hospital on Randall's Island, New York. In answer to my inquiries, I heard from those in charge that they knew of no cures, although over ninety per cent. of their cases were improved.

Though up to this point it has been impossible to prove by actual experiment that we have finally found the best, the right, way to provide for the epileptic, yet, from what we have done, I have no hesitation in suggesting as a better method than any we now employ the establishment of homes for epileptics in connection with the several institutions which care for the feeble-minded.

Such homes should justify their name. The State should be asked to make provision abundant enough to enable the superintendent to employ that quality of assistance which cannot be had for

servant's wages, but which gives in return for fair compensation an enlightened, considerate, enthusiastic work, which is far beyond any value that can be reckoned in dollars and cents. Such a home should possess all the helps in the way of occupation and amusement that the best good of the inmates demands. Immediately, upon sufficient improvement of any case, all the benefits of school-room and workshop training could be placed within his reach.

With such opportunities, I do not claim too much when I say that the per cent. of cures could be quadrupled. For, as soon as we take the right steps in this direction, and the public shall be made aware that there is help, and we will say even one chance out of a hundred of cure, for epileptics, we shall gather in and save by timely aid a large per cent. of that class of young epileptics who, when they become old, help to crowd the wards of our insane asylums or occupy cells in our prisons.

I will repeat in brief:—

*First*, That more than sixty per cent. of the histories of children received into our institutions for the feeble-minded show epilepsy as a cause or as a complication.

*Second*, That the marriage of epileptics is one of the great sources of increase of imbecility.

*Third*, That a large per cent. of epileptics are susceptible to improvement, and a certain per cent. are cured; and there is good reason to believe that, under proper conditions, a much larger per cent. *could* be cured.

*Fourth*, That the work cannot be carried on satisfactorily in connection with ordinary work for the feeble-minded upon its present basis.

*Fifth*, That the best results cannot be reached by isolation.

*Sixth*, That a home of the kind suggested would tend directly to prevent marriage of epileptics, and thus the increase of imbecility, insanity, and crime would be lessened.

I will not enlarge upon the utilitarian side of the question. A moment's thought, however, will convince any one that, when we take any steps which shall prevent the increase of epilepsy or imbecility, we diminish the number of those who must necessarily depend upon the State for care, whether in the educational institution, hospital, insane asylum, or prison.

In the name of all these unfortunates, I ask your help in this work of prevention, mercy, and economy. To you is given the privilege and power of moulding public opinion. We ask you to use your privilege for the benefit of the most helpless and neglected class which comes within the reach of charity.

## XVI.

### Reports from States.

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#### REPORT OF CORRESPONDING SECRETARIES AND OTHERS.

The Standing Committee on Reports from States submitted a report, signed by Fred. H. Wines and R. Brinkerhoff, which is not reproduced here, for want of space, as it merely contained a summary of the statements by the several reporters.

#### ALABAMA.

Mr. J. H. JOHNSON, Talladega.—The few charitable institutions (so called) in this State have all had a successful and satisfactory year's experience. Both the Insane Hospital, at Tuscaloosa, and the Institution for the Deaf, Dumb, and Blind, at Talladega, have increased in numbers, and have had some valuable improvements added to their equipment. Our State Penitentiary is a State prison only in name, the convicts being all leased to contractors; and they work in mines, on farms, at saw-mills, etc. A close and careful oversight over the convicts has been maintained by the Board of Prison Inspectors; and I am informed that they are well fed and clothed, and, as a rule, treated in a humane manner. There have been one or two exceptions to this rule, which, when made public, were promptly condemned by public sentiment, and speedily remedied by the proper authorities. There is a vast improvement in our common jails, which, I think, will now compare favorably with similar prisons in any part of the country.

A Charity Hospital has been organized in the city of Montgomery.

No steps have been taken toward organizing a State Board of Charities. The amount paid out annually by the State for the maintenance of charitable institutions is about \$90,000.

We have no peculiar difficulties to contend with, growing out of



local conditions. The chief trouble we have had (the mixing up of the two races) has been satisfactorily settled.

#### ARKANSAS.

No report.

#### CALIFORNIA.

Mrs. SARAH B. COOPER, San Francisco.—During the year just closed there has been no special legislation with reference to crime and prisons. An appropriation of \$163,000 was made for the erection of an additional building for the insane, at Stockton.

The sum of \$45,000 was appropriated for the establishment of an institution for the care and education of the feeble-minded, and \$2,112.60 was expended on the Veteran's Home. An appropriation of \$7,475.92 was made to the Old People's Home.

The Asylum for the Deaf, Dumb, and Blind ranks among the best in the country; and the National Convention of teachers of the deaf and dumb, which will open here July 15, simultaneously with the Conference of Charities and Correction, is expected to be the largest and most important of its kind ever held in the country.

An institution for the care and training of the feeble-minded was formally opened, with interesting ceremonies, at Santa Clara, June 15. It already has fifty-two inmates. Prof. Wood, formerly of the Kentucky institution for the feeble-minded, is in charge of it.

The Boys' and Girls' Aid Society of San Francisco has just removed to its new and handsome home, built at a cost of \$35,000, the gift of Mr. Charles Crocker, the lot having been given by Senator Fair.

The Golden Gate Kindergarten Association has organized thirteen kindergartens, five of which are sustained by Mrs. Senator Stanford, one by Mrs. Senator Hearst, and one by the heirs of Senator Sharon. I wish that all United States senators' wives would go and do likewise. There are thirty-two charity kindergartens in San Francisco and Oakland, containing nearly two thousand children.

A new superintendent of the House of Correction has just been appointed,—ex-Gov. Machin, of San Francisco.

Great interest is felt in the formation of a State Board of Charities; also, in the matter of thorough local organization, in order to secure better and more satisfactory results. This quickened interest is due to the recent visit of Mrs. Virginia T. Smith, of Hartford, Conn., to this coast; and to her sensible, strong, and stirring appeals to the large audiences that gathered to hear her speak.

The annual cost of supporting the charitable institutions of this State for the past two years was \$416,437.72.

The condition of our jails is deplorable. Efforts are making in the direction of removing children from the contaminating influences of older criminals.

I have spoken to the inmates of the Industrial School once a month during the past year, and have had some most satisfactory experiences in this line of work. There are one hundred and sixteen boys, from eight to seventeen years of age, now in the school. The great problem to be solved in this locality is how to obtain work for boys and young men as well as adults. It was never so scarce as now. Homes are needed for these boys at the Industrial School, many of whom drift into this reformatory simply from lack of proper home influences. There is the making of good men in many of these boys. A way must be devised to accomplish it.

#### COLORADO.

Mrs. J. S. SPERRY, Pueblo.—Colorado has four State institutions. The Reform School at Golden, under the careful management of Mr. and Mrs. W. C. Sampson, has an average number of ninety-three pupils. The net cost of support is \$20,000. The Blind and Mute Asylum at Colorado Springs, efficiently superintended by Mr. D. C. Dudley, has an average number of fifty-five pupils. The cost of support is about \$400 per annum for each pupil, which includes repairs, improvements, etc. It would be less per capita, if the school were larger, since the same corps of teachers could give instruction to twice the present number. The penitentiary at Cañon City, of which Gen. R. A. Cameron is warden and the Rev. E. C. Brooks is chaplain, reports three hundred and sixteen prisoners. There has been a general reformation in the management of this prison during the past year, under the new administration. Dr. P. R. Thombs is in charge of the Insane Asylum at Pueblo, in which the average number of patients is one hundred and forty. The appropriations for the support of these four institutions from the State treasury for the two years 1885, 1886, were, in the aggregate, \$203,000.

The charities of Denver are a Catholic orphanage, two Catholic hospitals, the House of the Good Shepherd, a Protestant orphanage, three Protestant hospitals, the Ladies' Relief Society, a free dispensary, the Women's Christian Temperance Union, Union Relief Work, a lunch-room, free beds, a reading-room, etc.\*

Leadville reports systematic relief work and two hospitals.

Pueblo has one Catholic and two Protestant hospitals, and the Ladies' Benevolent Union Home, with a free labor bureau, which assists hundreds to secure employment, besides giving to many a temporary home.

During the past year, the Colorado Christian Association, for the aid of the criminal and the unfortunate, has been organized, with Judge W. F. Stone, of Denver, as president.

A State Reformatory for Unfortunate Women has been located at Colorado Springs, and Catherine W. Beach, of Leadville, appointed agent to secure funds. This institution is being put on a sure financial foundation, and will be a monument to the Christian charity of Colorado.

We expect, during the coming year, to obtain funds from the State for an Industrial School for Girls, which is greatly needed. The formation of a State Board of Charities is in contemplation.

Denver and Pueblo have the only two almshouses in the State. Both are efficiently managed. The jails, as a rule, will compare favorably with those in older States.

The greatest local difficulties with which we have to contend are ignorance and intemperance. Public opinion in favor of the temperance reform is steadily growing.

REV. JOHN B. RAVERLY, Denver.—The status of Catholic institutions of charity in Colorado is as follows, so far as they have been established:—

In Denver, we have (1) the House of the Good Shepherd, with forty-five penitents, or girls under special rules for reformation, and about one hundred girls in the school of preservation,—that is, children whose home training and surroundings were such as would have surely led them to a wretched life; (2) a hospital, under the charge of eight Sisters of Charity, with an average number of forty patients; (3) another hospital, under the care of Franciscan Sisters, twelve in number, with an average of fifty or sixty patients; (4) an orphan asylum, under the charge of nine Sisters of Charity, with an average of eighty children.

At Georgetown there is a hospital, under the care of the Sisters of St. Joseph; one at Leadville, under the care of six Sisters of Charity, with about twenty patients; one at Pueblo, under five Sisters of Charity, with fifteen or twenty patients; and one at Durango, under the Sisters of Mercy.

It is our intention to have at some future time a school of reform for boys, but our resources are too limited to think of it at present.

## CONNECTICUT.

Mr. HENRY E. BURTON.—The law establishing county temporary homes for dependent and neglected children, of which some account was given last year, stands without change; but the legislature of 1886 enacted as follows:—

(1) That the necessary extra expense incurred by a town or school district in which a temporary home is located, for school accommodations and instruction for the children in the home, shall be paid by the county, upon the approval of the managers of the home; (2) That no child, between the ages of two and sixteen years, belonging to either of the classes specified in the first section of the act creating the homes, shall be committed by any court or magistrate to the State Reform School for Boys or the Connecticut Industrial School for Girls, unless found guilty of an offence punishable by law, or leading an idle, vagrant, or vicious life, or the court or magistrate shall believe that the child's previous circumstances in life have been such as to render the restraint, care, and guardianship of such schools desirable; (3) That the directors of said schools may transfer children of the aforesaid classes from said schools to the temporary homes of the counties from which they came, such transfer not to divest said schools of their legal guardianship unless expressly relinquished, and the expense of supporting the children so transferred to be paid by the State.

The county temporary homes have commended themselves to the understanding and sympathy of the people and their legislators, and it seems to be universally conceded that they have come to stay. They are in successful operation in all the counties; and, in four of these counties, they have been permanently located on premises bought by the counties for the purposes.

The last legislature authorized towns and school districts to establish kindergartens for all children between the ages of three and seven years. It required that "physiology and hygiene, relating especially to the effects of alcoholic liquors, stimulants, and narcotics on the human system," be taught in the public schools. It prohibited the employment of children under thirteen years of age in mechanical, mercantile, or manufacturing establishments. It began an effort to abolish contracts for the support of the poor, by forbidding towns to make such contracts to extend beyond the first day of January, 1887, and requiring that after that date all persons supported by any town, excepting persons needing only temporary aid or partial support, be supported in "an almshouse or other place or places provided by the town." It appropriated \$190,000 for long

deferred and much needed additions and repairs to the State prison buildings.

Dr. A. M. Shew, medical superintendent of the Connecticut Hospital for the Insane from its opening in 1866, died April 12. His successor in the superintendency is Dr. James Olmstead, who has long been a physician at the hospital.

Mr. C. H. Bond, for nine years the successful superintendent of the Industrial School for Girls, has resigned; and his successor is not yet chosen.

The appropriation by the legislature of 1886 for humane and reformatory purposes, for the year ending June 30, 1887, amounts in the aggregate to \$612,229.

#### DAKOTA.

JACOB SCHAEZEL, Jr., Sioux Falls.—The Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb at Sioux Falls has an average attendance of thirty-two, at a per capita cost of \$180, which is provided by the Territory. There are about ninety deaf-mutes who are not receiving the benefits of this school.

The Insane Hospital at Yankton has one hundred and twenty-eight patients, who are maintained at a weekly per capita cost of about \$5. Dr. Ettie, the former superintendent, was succeeded Jan. 1, 1886, by Dr. J. F. Cravens. The North Dakota Hospital for the Insane was opened May 27, 1885, under Dr. O. W. Archibald. The present number of patients is one hundred and nine, who cost for maintenance about \$200 each per annum.

The blind of this Territory are cared for at the Iowa College for the Blind. There are now eight pupils there from Dakota.

The penitentiary at Bismarck, opened in August, 1885, under Mr. Daniel Williams as warden, has at present forty-one inmates. Mr. C. M. Koehler, warden of the penitentiary at Sioux Falls, was superseded July 1, 1885, by Mr. Amos F. Shaw. The number of inmates is ninety-two. The above figures show a total of one hundred and thirty-three convicts for the entire Territory. During the past year there have been but seventy-six persons sentenced to prison out of a population of 425,000, and justice is well administered. It is with pardonable pride that I call attention to the above statistics; and, in the absence of fuller data, I venture the assertion that a smaller percentage of criminals does not obtain in any other State or Territory, and hope that this statement may tend to dissipate the erroneous impression that lawlessness prevails to a greater extent here than elsewhere.

## DELAWARE.

Mr. W. M. CANBY, Wilmington.—The only new institution is the Ferris Reform School, which is now in operation, with six inmates. It is confidently expected that this will be of great service in removing from prisons, charitable institutions, and the community at large such young persons as show a tendency to descend to a depraved life.

Delaware has no State Board of Charities, and perhaps needs none. Under the present law there is a board of visitors for each county, appointed by the governor, whose duty it is to examine the prisons and look after the well-being of the prisoners.

The number of inmates of public and private charitable institutions (including those sent to asylums for the deaf and dumb and feeble-minded in other States) is less than five hundred. Three-fifths of this number are in the public almshouses of the State. All of the institutions mentioned are in good order and well conducted.

As formerly reported, there is a county jail for each of the three counties. Those in Newcastle and Kent Counties are in good condition, but the building in Sussex County is in very poor condition. All are conducted satisfactorily, so far as the buildings and the system will allow. The number of prisoners at this date (July 1, 1886) is as follows: convicts in Newcastle County, 43; Kent, 5; Sussex, 2; total convicts, 50; awaiting trial, in the three jails, 24; vagrants (all in Newcastle), 19; total number in detention, 93.

During the past year, eight convicts have been pilloried (each for one hour), and six of them were also whipped. In addition to these, eighteen other convicts were whipped, but not pilloried. The average number of lashes was fourteen and one-third; and, so far as known, no blood was drawn.

Since the prisons of Delaware are constructed and administered upon the old-fashioned county plan, the treatment of prisoners is wholly punitive or deterrent, with no effort at reformation. The superintendents of the prisons are the sheriffs of the counties, who are elected and, in practice, changed every two years. The wardens and other officers change with them. There is no classification of prisoners, and no work required of or provided for them. In these three particulars — superintendence, classification, and employment — there is need of thorough reformation. Efforts are now making to effect a radical change; but there are many difficulties in the way, and patience as well as active exertion will be required.

The population of the city of Wilmington is about one-third of that



of the whole State. The arrests for the year ending June 30 were 1,838. Almost all of them were for drunkenness, disorderly conduct, corner-lounging, vagrancy, trespass, etc., which were disposed of at once by reprimands or small fines (mostly one dollar). All the serious cases are comprised in the above report for Newcastle County. The population of the State is about 165,000. The convicts and vagrants, July 1, were 69, which is in the proportion of 1 to 2,391. The criminal population of the United States, by the census of 1880, was to the whole in the proportion of 1 to 833.

#### FLORIDA.

Mr. W. D. CHIPLEY, Pensacola.—On the first day of June there were at the State Asylum for Indigent Lunatics 175 patients, as follows: white males, 52; females, 59; colored males, 36; females, 28. There are also in the hands of private parties 64 indigent lunatics who are cared for and maintained at the expense of the State. The cost to the State of maintaining these lunatics, in the year 1885, was \$52,189.44. During the present year, buildings costing about \$15,000 have been erected at the asylum.

The Institute for the Blind, Deaf, and Dumb cost the State last year \$5,793.06.

The grand juries of the different counties who hold two sessions a year have supervision of the county jails, and in several instances have recommended changes and improvements. The boards of county commissioners have supervision of poorhouses, county hospitals, etc. In several of the counties, steps are being taken to improve them.

The grand jury of Duval County has recommended the removal of juvenile offenders from the county jails, where they are associated with more hardened criminals.

#### GEORGIA.

No report.

#### ILLINOIS.

Mr. J. W. WHIPP, Springfield.—This being the year when there is no session of the legislature, there is little of special interest to report from this State.

Dr. C. T. Wilbur has been succeeded as superintendent of the Asylum for Feeble-Minded Children by Dr. William B. Fish. Dr. Wilbur has opened a private institution at Kalamazoo, Mich.

The question of contract labor in prisons and reformatories is exciting a good deal of attention at present, for the reason that the legislature has submitted to the people for adoption or rejection a constitutional amendment prohibiting it, which seems likely to be adopted.

The ladies of Illinois are endeavoring to organize a State institution for the care of dependent girls.

The General Assembly, at its last session, created a Soldiers' and Sailors' Home, which is now in process of erection at Quincy. The bill for a prison for women failed to pass.

Mr. C. L. FREY, warden of the Cook County Infirmary, Chicago.—The public charities of Cook County are under the direct control of the county government, which sustains four large charitable institutions,—the Infirmary, the Hospital, and the Hospital for the Insane,—which furnish "in-door" relief, and the County Agent's Office, which gives "out-door" relief.

The Infirmary is at Dunning. It consists of ten buildings,—an executive and central building from which radiate eight three-story wings, containing twenty wards. The daily average number of inmates exceeds 1,200. The total admissions for ten years past have been 16,265. The number in 1885 was 3,755. The cost of maintenance is thirty-six and one-tenth cents per day per capita. During January and February, the daily average was often upwards of 1,700, many of whom were non-residents of the county or State. All inmates are admitted through the County Agent's Office. All others are sent by town supervisors. During last winter, one hundred and four homeless little ones were received, of whom ninety were distributed among various institutions or adopted by private families. Boys of school ages are sent to the Training-school for Boys, at Feehanville. The appropriation for the maintenance of the Infirmary for the present year, from the county treasury, is \$115,000.

The Hospital for the Insane, also at Dunning, has been crowded to its utmost capacity for the last five years. Its present daily average number of patients is nearly seven hundred. It is intended, as soon as county finances will permit, to construct a new building adjoining, with twelve two-story wings, having a capacity of about twelve hundred, the estimated cost of which is \$1,000,000. A small portion of this work has already been done, several of the new wings having been erected; and they are now occupied.

The total number of insane from Cook County, including those in the State institutions, is at present about fifteen hundred. The sum

appropriated for the expenses of the County Insane Asylum is \$120,000.

The Hospital in the city of Chicago can boast one of the finest buildings ever erected for this purpose in this country. The daily average number of patients is about six hundred. The appropriation for maintenance is \$125,000.

The County Agent's Office is the head-quarters for distribution of charities for the city and county. About twenty-five visitors are employed during the winter months in the investigation of applications for relief. Orders for tickets with coupons are issued. Bread and rations are delivered direct from the office, and meat can be obtained from markets in different sections of the city. To a man, his wife and child, an order is given for twenty-five pounds of bread, fifteen pounds of meat, and rations of rice, barley, oatmeal, soap, etc., for one month.

Coal is also furnished by the half-ton, when necessary. The appropriation for this department is \$90,000. The number of families cared for last winter was about five thousand.

(The order limiting the number of pages of the present volume of Proceedings has compelled the abridgment of Mr. Frey's interesting report.)

#### INDIANA.

Dr. W. B. FLETCHER, Indianapolis.—There having been no session of our legislature since the last Conference, no change has occurred in the general management of our charitable and penal institutions. No public or private institutions have been created or opened within the year. Neither death, resignation, nor removal has changed any of the officers.

The Charity Organization Society established at Indianapolis by Rev. O. C. McCulloch having proven so beneficial, the plan is being introduced in other cities of the State. Throughout the State, a general interest is awakening in the direction of forming a State Board of Charities.

We have five State charitable institutions, whose population is as follows: Hospital for the Insane, 1,602; Institution for the Blind, 110; Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, 306; Soldiers' Orphans' Home and School for Feeble-minded Children (combined under one management), 233. The annual cost to the State of maintaining these 2,250 inmates is \$605,000.

Our jails and almshouses are, as a rule, badly constructed and badly kept. In the ninety-two almshouses of the State are confined

536 insane persons, 390 idiots, and 244 epileptics, besides about 600 children.

There are twelve organizations in the State which care for orphan children, three of them under the Roman Catholic Church, the rest are non-sectarian. They give homes and instruction to about eight hundred children, a little over half of whom are girls.

The peculiar difficulty to be overcome in Indiana is political prejudice in the management of our public charities, which makes itself felt in the cramping, so to speak, of the usefulness of the State institutions. The particular reforms attempted are educational and manual instruction among the chronic insane, and more freedom and kindness to all, higher development of the moral powers in penal institutions, and more industrial work among the various State and local charity schools.

## IOWA.

Dr. JENNIE McCOWEN, Davenport.—Our General Assembly having been in session since the last meeting of this Conference, the following legislation in regard to charitable and penal matters may be reported.

An appropriation of \$100,000 was made for the construction of an additional wing at the Hospital for the Insane at Mount Pleasant, to accommodate two hundred patients, which will increase the capacity of the institution to eight hundred and fifty. At this hospital, protection against fire has been sought in the introduction of thermostats, an electric fire-alarm, iron fire-doors and fire-walls between wings and sections, appliances in every ward for extinguishing fire, and fire-escapes. Increasing attention is given by the medical officers to pathological investigations.

An appropriation of \$40,000 was made for an additional cottage at Independence. This hospital is well provided with means of escape from fire, besides which the whole force of employes is under definite instructions as to the individual duty of each of them in case a fire should occur. One member of the medical staff is a woman, well qualified for her position and doing efficient and satisfactory work.

For continuing the construction of the new hospital at Clarinda, \$103,000 was appropriated.

There are now about three thousand insane in the State, of whom about fourteen hundred will be provided for by the end of the present year. To accommodate the other sixteen hundred, work on the

hospital at Clarinda is pushed as rapidly as possible ; and another hospital is asked for in the north-western portion of the State.

A law was passed for the transportation, at the expense of the State treasury, of non-resident insane to their places of legal settlement in other States, when such settlement can be discovered.

Insane criminals are still cared for in our State hospitals, the separate prison for their benefit in connection with the new penitentiary at Anamosa being not yet finished.

There has been some discussion of the prison labor question ; and a bill to abolish contract labor in the penitentiaries of Iowa was introduced, but did not get beyond the committee room.

The question of a reformatory prison for women has been agitated from year to year, but so far without securing favorable action from our law-makers. An act was passed, however, providing that, in all jails and prisons now erected, or which may hereafter be erected, a separate department shall be furnished for the detention of women. The finished plan of the penitentiary at Anamosa contemplates a separate prison for women, both it and the prison for insane criminals to be without the prison walls proper. Iowa boasts of having fewer women criminals in proportion to her female population than any other State in the Union, there being at present but thirteen women convicts, who are cared for temporarily in one of the shop-buildings at Anamosa, in the immediate charge of a matron. For many years, the chaplain and teacher at this prison has been a woman, who has given excellent satisfaction to all immediately concerned. This is the "reform" year, however ; and the committee from the General Assembly which visited the prison for inspection recommended the discharge of the chaplain in favor of a man, and of the matron in the interest of economy. The recommendation has not yet been acted upon.

The law relating to the labor of prisoners, under the supervision of sheriffs, was amended by placing the same under the direction and regulation of the county boards of supervisors, with the proviso that such labor shall not be leased.

The Prisoners' Aid Society, which is just getting under way, secured an appropriation of \$1,500 for its work.

The new institutions provided for are : A Soldiers' Home, located at Marshalltown, for which an appropriation of \$75,000 was made ; and two private institutions, the Benedict Retreat for Erring Women, at Decorah, and a Home for Friendless Children, in Des Moines. The latter is under the auspices of the Women's Christian Temperance Union, of West Des Moines.

The superintendent and matron of the Institution for the Deaf and Dumb at Council Bluffs have given place to new officials, Mr. G. L. Wyckoff, one of the teachers, having been advanced to the superintendency, and Miss Sarah E. Wright, a former matron, having been re-elected to her old position. Mr. and Mrs. Pierce, of the State Orphans' Home, after faithful and efficient service for a long term of years (nineteen), retire from institution work. Their successors are Gen. and Mrs. A. C. Litchfield.

The Committee to visit Hospitals for Insane consists of two men and one woman, who hold their position until relieved by the appointing power. The entire committee has been changed by the present governor. The law in regard to women on boards of trustees of insane hospitals is permissive only, and there are no women on these boards. The only State Board on which women have a representative is that of the State Industrial School.

The American Educational Association has begun to establish branches in the towns of Iowa. Its work has two objects: (1) the placing of destitute children in homes where they are under the supervision of the local advisory board of the town where the child is placed; (2) the aiding of capable girls and young women who are without friends, and are destitute, to educate and support themselves.

Charity organization in cities has made little, if any, progress, the general feeling being, where the question has been agitated, that our cities are not of sufficient size to render such organization a necessity. In all our cities, out-door relief is freely distributed by the overseers of the poor; and their work is supplemented, in many of them, by a ladies' aid association, by which the city is districted. Two or more ladies, assigned to each district, have the immediate care of the beneficiaries of their respective wards, and report weekly at a general meeting of the managers. In a number of towns, industrial schools for neglected girls are sustained by these or kindred organizations; and we are following closely after the older communities in the creation of all the specific and limited charities, such as homes for the aged, for the friendless, "helping hands," "open doors," etc. The branches of philanthropic work undertaken by the Women's Christian Temperance Union, especially jail and prison work, are actively prosecuted.

Among the reformatory measures enacted by the last legislature, through the influence largely of the temperance women of the State, should be named an act to suppress the circulation, advertising, and



vending of obscene and immoral literature; an act raising the age of consent from ten to thirteen years;\* an act to provide for the teaching and study of physiology and hygiene, with special reference to the effects of alcoholic drinks, stimulants, and narcotics upon the human system, in the public schools and educational institutions of the State; and the passage of a very stringent prohibitory law.

To sum up, the State institutions are ten in number,—two hospitals for the insane, two penitentiaries, two industrial schools, an orphans' home, and institutions for the education of the deaf and dumb, the blind, and the feeble-minded. Four others are in process of erection,—an additional hospital for the insane, a prison for insane criminals, a prison for women, and a soldiers' home. The estimated number of inmates of State institutions is 3,500; and during the last biennial period there was paid out of the State treasury, for the shelter, care, and support of these beneficiaries, \$1,604,060.

#### KANSAS.

No report.

#### KENTUCKY.

RANDOLPH H. BLAIN, Louisville.—I am here at the request of the Charity Organization Society of Louisville, and am not authorized to report for the State.

In Kentucky, the condition of lunacy is ascertained by the judgment of a jury of twelve men, under a writ of *de lunatico inquirendo*, thus conforming to the requirement of Magna Charta that no person be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without the judgment of a jury of his peers. There are three institutions for the insane in the State,—at Lexington, Anchorage (near Louisville), and Hopkinsville. Though large, they are taxed to their utmost capacity.

There is an institution at Frankfort for the feeble-minded, and two for the blind, both at Louisville,—one for white and one for colored pupils. The State has no institution for the reform of the young; but the city of Louisville has two, under one management,—one for white and one for colored children between the ages of six and sixteen. These are a pride to the city and State, since they accomplish grand results. The boy or girl sent to one of these institutions, whether for crime or for incorrigibility, is considered more fortunate than if sent to some orphanage or a high school, it being the rare exception

\* An act was also passed raising the age beyond which a girl may, with impunity, be enticed away from home for purposes of prostitution, from fifteen to eighteen years; and an act raising the age beyond which any child may be abducted or decoyed away from home from twelve to fourteen years.

that such a one does not come out a good and useful citizen, fitted to take his position in any community.

The State has no poor fund, and dispenses no alms. Each county court is authorized and empowered to have its own almshouse and provide for its paupers. Few counties have almshouses or make any provision for the poor. The county of Jefferson and city of Louisville have a large and well-managed almshouse, which is generally full.

The State has an old penitentiary at Frankfort, and a new one in process of construction.

Under acts passed by the legislature of 1884, convicts were leased out to work in coal mines. During the session of 1886, this act was repealed, but, the contracts having not yet expired, the convicts have not been returned to the walls of the prison. Recently, a writ of *habeas corpus* was applied for by several of those working in the mines, but was refused by the judge of the Jefferson Circuit Court. In an able opinion by Judge Jackson, it was held that only one unlawfully deprived of his liberty is entitled to the writ; that the applicants showed by their petition that they were lawfully detained of their liberty; that the fact of their being detained in a pen or coal-mine, under law enacted before their incarceration, did not render their detention unlawful; that a penitentiary is a place appointed by law in which prisoners are kept at hard labor; and that whether it is called a penitentiary, a branch penitentiary, a field, or a coal-mine, is a matter of no import.

It may be admitted that the jails of Kentucky are far from modern in their structure or management. They do not furnish attractive or luxurious abodes for those who, for arson or murder, require such accommodations. They are subject to visitation and inspection by the grand jury, which reports evils, when found to exist; and the court has power to order them abated.

During the legislative session of 1886, the governor recommended the passage of an act creating a Board of Charities. The bill unfortunately provided for the payment of a salary of \$2,500 to the president and \$2,000 to each of the other two members. This rendered the entire act obnoxious to the economical mind of the ordinary country member, and it was defeated.

In the city of Louisville, a Charity Organization Society has been in active operation for nearly three years. At the end of its second year, it had registered for relief three thousand cases and recorded about five thousand. More than half of those who applied for aid were found unworthy; nearly one-third needed work rather than

relief. Many of the towns and villages in the State realize the necessity of this form of organization, and are seeking information looking to the establishment of local societies.

#### LOUISIANA.

Rev. CHARLES A. ALLEN, New Orleans.—I have no information to offer, and have been so overwhelmed with my regular duties that I have not been able to look up the subjects. I am only a volunteer, and give a good deal of time from my duties as a city pastor. But the labor of organizing the Conference of Charities of New Orleans has been so great that I could give no thought to anything else in this department. I have found a hopeless sluggishness here on the subject of charity organization. I suggested a conference of charities three years ago, but held no important office until at the end of the first year, when the directors had got into debt \$600, and were going to wind it up, I consented to take the laboring oar. By hard work, I have paid expenses and made a pretty efficient organization, in which some twenty excellent ladies do the work. I find that I cannot bear the strain, in addition to my church work; and next autumn I shall resign. I think the ladies will carry it on well.

#### MAINE.

Mr. PRENTISS LORING, Portland.—There is nothing new or of special interest in relation to these subjects in Maine to be communicated.

#### MARYLAND.

Mr. G. S. GRIFFITH, Baltimore.—There have been no charitable or correctional institutions established since the last meeting of the Conference.

Mr. Jesse Moore has been appointed superintendent of the House of Correction and Bridewell, in place of Gen. James Bond, resigned.

The amount of money appropriated by the State and city for the support of public institutions averages about the same as last year.

A strong effort was made to establish a State Board of Charities for Maryland. The measure, however, failed, because several bills were introduced and discussed which were essentially different. One of these called for a paid commission with executive power: another provided for an unpaid commission with advisory power only. The defeat of both bills is due in part to the fact that the Maryland Prisoners' Aid Association has for years past carried out effectively most of the work contemplated in these bills.

A number of important bills were passed by the General Assembly, which will be of great advantage to the city and State, in the suppression of vice and immorality. Among these may be mentioned :—

(1) An act prohibiting the publication and exhibition of indecent show-bills or immoral pictures, prints, or other documents. This bill was prepared and signed by the ministers of Baltimore, and had the hearty approval of the mayor, of the police commissioners, and of the marshal, who will see that the law is rigidly enforced.

(2) An act prohibiting the receiving and detaining of children between three and sixteen years of age in any almshouse or poorhouse of the State, unless such child be a paralytic or otherwise incapacitated for usefulness, and to provide for the care and education of such children.

(3) An act to prevent the employment of young girls as singers in concert saloons or low variety theatres.

Within the year, Gov. Lloyd appointed a lunacy commission, of which Dr. John Morris is chairman. This board investigates all cases of alleged insanity brought to its attention, and has power to have removed to an insane asylum any insane criminals confined in any prison, whose condition may require special treatment.

Old dilapidated jails and almshouses in some of the counties have been replaced by new and substantial buildings with modern improvements.

The establishment of a hospital for the insane paupers of Southern Maryland is claiming the attention of the people. It is recommended that the four counties in that portion of the State (which are thinly populated) shall unite in the erection of a union or district almshouse, to which the sane and insane paupers of these counties shall be sent. The press has freely discussed the question, and it is hoped that this scheme may be carried out. By such a combination, the cost of annual maintenance would be greatly reduced, and more efficient superintendents, matrons, and physicians could be secured.

Nearly two years ago, the police commissioners of Baltimore appointed Mrs. Catherine McLennan police matron. Her headquarters are at the central station, but she attends calls from all the other stations. Her work is still an experiment, but the results thus far have been very satisfactory and gratifying.

The Friendly Inn, established more than a year and a half ago, has been put upon a good basis, and is doing intelligent and useful work. It provides meals and lodgings for the homeless and destitute at a nominal price. It offers to the apparently irreclaimable an

opportunity to go to work, and it has within eighteen months secured two hundred situations for those in need of them. It also has connected with it a provident wood-yard to assist in giving temporary relief.

#### MASSACHUSETTS.

Col. GARPNER TUFTS, Concord.—The legislature of 1886 has separated the Board of Health from the Board of Lunacy and Charity, and has placed the Health Department in the hands of a new board. The old board has been given some new powers over the insane. The legislature enacted the indeterminate sentence for the Reformatory for Men. It failed to alter the law in regard to prison labor. A measure for employing convicts upon State account failed by a few votes. A bill to establish an inebriate asylum passed the Senate, but was defeated in the House. New jails or houses of correction were provided for, or ordered to be built at Greenfield, Springfield, and New Bedford, and sixty new cells in the State prison at Boston.

Mr. H. E. Swan has succeeded Mr. Allen as superintendent of the Lyman School, Mrs. N. C. Brackett has succeeded Mr. N. Porter Brown as superintendent of the Industrial School for Girls, and Col. Russell has succeeded Col. Usher as warden of the State prison.

The estimated number of inmates in charitable and correctional institutions of the State is as follows: lunatic hospitals and asylums, 3,900; State Almshouse and Workhouse, Reform, Primary, and Industrial Schools, 1,650; city and town almshouses, 4,200; private charitable institutions, 2,000; county jails and houses of correction, 3,000; State Prison, 525; Reformatory for Women, 230; Reformatory for Men, 620: total, 16,125.

The gross annual expenditures are: lunatic hospitals and asylums, \$750,000; State Almshouse and Workhouse, Reform, Primary, and Industrial Schools, \$250,000; city and town almshouses, etc., \$1,000,000; county prisons, \$380,000; State prisons, \$185,000; Reformatory for Women, \$63,000; Reformatory for Men, \$136,000: total gross expenditure, \$2,700,000. The net cost is not above \$2,200,000.

The condition of our jails and almshouses is generally good. Special inspection by direction of the Board of Lunacy and Charity effects an improvement in the condition of the almshouses. Children are not now sent to jails, and various steps taken have resulted in a quite general separation of children at almshouses from unfavorable influences.

The difficulty which we have to contend with in Massachusetts

grows out of the opposition of labor unions to convict labor. Public opinion on this subject has no special direction, and is not definitely felt. The special reform attempted is in the purpose to deal with offenders as persons who desire to do right, and who are not beyond recovery nor without the pale of the gospel. The reform demanded is in public opinion, so that the public will accept the fact that the offenders are reformed in purpose and life, and so that it will be hospitable and Christlike toward those who do go out from institutions new and worthy men.

The most important prison legislation in Massachusetts has been the establishment of the Reformatory for Male Prisoners in the buildings formerly occupied by the State prison at Concord, and the return of the State prison to its old quarters at Boston (Charlestown District). Although this legislation took effect in December, 1884, the Reformatory is yet new. It is in part upon the Elmira plan, and its success is gratifying to the State authorities. It has already received eleven hundred and forty prisoners. Six hundred and twenty men remain in it. Some of its features are novel and interesting. I am its superintendent, having been transferred by executive appointment from the superintendency of the State School at Monson.

F. B. SANBORN, Boston.—The Massachusetts State Board of Lunacy and Charity desires to report that, under the act of the legislature of 1886, the Health Department of the board has been recently discontinued, and a new State Board of Health established, the old board continuing to execute all the provisions of the laws relating to lunacy and charity, under the several departments of Inspector of Charities, In-door Poor, and Out-door Poor.

The Corresponding Secretary for Massachusetts having substantially answered the inquiries contained in the committee's circular, it only remains to call the attention of the Conference to two or three matters of importance connected with the work of the board during the past year.

The system of boarding out the harmless insane in families, under the legislative act of 1885, was entered upon just a year ago,—July 18, 1885,—and has been proceeding satisfactorily ever since. There are, at present, thirty-two insane persons—namely, eleven men and twenty-one women—boarded out in sixteen families residing in twelve different towns in the Commonwealth.

A year and a half ago, under an act of the legislature of 1884, the board appointed an agent for the prosecution of vagrants and tramps, for the purpose of relieving the State almshouse of this class



of offenders. During the first few months there were a considerable number of prosecutions, resulting in commitments to the State work-house and reformatories; but, latterly, the work has been almost entirely one of very effectual prevention.

For more than six years now, the work of boarding out motherless infants in families has been carried on, under the direction of the board. Up to the beginning of the present year, about four hundred and fifty had been so boarded out; and, of these, only about one hundred and fifty, or thirty-three and one-third per cent., are known to have died. Contrast this with the proportion of deaths among infants at the Tewksbury Almshouse prior to 1879, where but a little more than three per cent. survived to their third year, and the great saving of infant life under the new system becomes apparent. In this connection, it may be mentioned that the facilities for securing adoptions have recently largely increased, the demand for infant girls for adoption, by persons in comfortable circumstances, at present fully equalling the supply.

Legislation of the present year has placed the commitment of children on a more satisfactory legal footing, and brought this whole matter more nearly within the control of the board than ever before.

#### MICHIGAN.

L. S. STORRS, Lansing.—Our legislature holds biennial sessions, and there was none during the winter of 1885. There is, therefore, little to report in the way of legislative action, except to mention the fact that the bill to abolish the State Board, referred to by Mr. Baxter at Washington, was defeated by a large majority in the House, after having passed the Senate. A board of pardons was created, and a change was made in the law by which the county jails are now under the boards of inspectors, consisting of the probate judge, the county agent, and the superintendents of the poor in each county. They make an inspection, as before, in May and November, file a report with the circuit judge, and send a duplicate copy to the office of the State Board.

Our Northern Asylum for the Insane has been opened at Traverse City. The number of patients, March 31, was three hundred and seventy-five, most of whom were transferred from the other asylums. The Asylum for Insane Criminals has also been opened at Ionia, and reports at the same date eighty-two inmates.

The State Board held its usual annual convention in connection with the conference of county agents, which was more largely attended than any in the past.

The inspections of the jails under the new law are thorough, and the report full. One of the county agents writes us, "Our supervisors are stirred up considerably by these reports, and I have no doubt they will soon result in a thorough overhauling or a new jail." The plans of new jails to be erected in some of the counties have been voluntarily submitted to the State Board, and its suggestions adopted. By other counties, it is advised that, when plans are prepared, they will be submitted. This is also true of some poorhouses.

## MINNESOTA.

Rev. H. H. HART, St. Paul.—A State Public School, modelled after that at Coldwater, Mich., will be opened at Owatonna in August or September. Three cottages will afford accommodations for sixty children and for the administration. The location is admirable, and the cottages are well planned.

A county jail has been completed at Fergus Falls, and another at Red Wing, both of which are greatly superior to any previously built in Minnesota.

The Washburn Home for Children at Minneapolis is nearing completion. The institution has an endowment of \$300,000, and the building will cost \$75,000.

Dr. A. C. Rogers has been appointed superintendent of the Training-school for Idiots and Imbeciles. Dr. J. C. Riheldaffer has resigned the superintendency of the State Reform School, after eighteen years' service. Under his administration, hundreds of erring children have been trained to honest self-support. Mr. J. W. Brown is acting superintendent.

The number of inmates of State charitable institutions is about as follows: insane, 1,275; idiots and imbeciles, 95; deaf, 145; blind, 35; total, 1,525. Add to these: in State prison, 400; in State Reform School, 160. Total supported by the State, 2,085.

The State appropriations for the fiscal year ending July 31, 1886, were as follows:—

	Current.	Special.	Total.
First Insane Hospital, . . . . .	\$136,020	\$59,500	\$195,520
Second Insane Hospital, . . . . .	97,240	8,700	105,940
Blind, Deaf, and Imbecile, . . . . .	75,000	44,000	119,000
Reform School, . . . . .	35,000	1,000	36,000
State Prison, . . . . .	70,000	30,000	100,000
Total, . . . . .	\$413,260	\$143,200	\$556,460

Some improvement is visible in the administration of jails and poorhouses, but there is room for much more.

A commission was established by the last legislature to locate a second prison. The law directs the commission to choose a location where there is a stone quarry upon the ground, in order to give opportunity for employing prisoners in getting out the raw material. An effort is making to have this second prison a reformatory for young men, with diversified industries.

#### MISSISSIPPI.

Dr. T. J. MITCHELL, Jackson.—Our State thus far, owing to its embarrassed financial condition, has not made the same progress which has been realized in the Northern and Western States; but we trust that at no distant day we may approximate what the people of the North have done and are doing for the unfortunate and dependent classes.

We have two State institutions for the care of the insane, one at Jackson and the other at Meridian. The former contains four hundred and fifty-six patients, and the latter about two hundred and twenty. Both are supported exclusively by the State, having no pay wards. In addition, we have an Institution for the Deaf and Dumb as well as one for the blind. These are also supported by the State, and managed by principals appointed by boards of trustees. The former has about eighty and the latter about thirty pupils, who are educated at a per capita cost of about \$200 per annum. Judging from what I see and hear, both are well conducted. The penitentiary and its general management claimed a considerable portion of the time of the last legislature, which was in session during the winter. This institution is leased, and has been for the past ten years. But there is a growing disinclination to continue this system; and it will, I doubt not, in a short time be abandoned, as inconsistent with that humane care to which all prisoners are entitled.

No new measure was introduced in the legislature affecting any charity or reformatory. It was my purpose to have suggested the propriety of organizing a State Board of Charities; but, finding that body in no temper to create new offices, I deemed it best to wait for a more propitious occasion for the presentation of this suggestion.

There have been no changes in the heads of any of the charitable institutions, and probably will not be for the next four years, since the governor, who has just entered upon another term of office, appoints directly or indirectly all of the superintendents except the warden of the penitentiary, who is elected by the legislature for the term of two years.

Our people are being educated rapidly to respond to all the claims of the unfortunate, but, owing to financial embarrassments, coupled with a dual provision for the white and colored races, have not made that progress that our Northern friends have undoubtedly expected of us. Our almshouses are generally poorly kept, which, in my judgment, is measurably attributable to the fact that there are but few in any of the counties who require public care. The jails and county prisons are, in the main, well kept.

A State Board of Health has been within the past few years organized; and, being an intelligent body, it has given quite an impulse to general sanitation and reform in these places.

## MISSOURI.

Rev. T. B. HALEY, Kansas City.—There has been no session of the Missouri legislature since the meeting of the Conference in Washington, and hence there is no new legislation to report.

The last legislature provided for the establishment of an additional asylum for the insane, making three under the control of the States besides the one under the control of the authorities of the city of St. Louis. The commissioners have located Asylum No. 3 at the town of Nevada, in Vernon County. The buildings are being erected. The officers have not yet been chosen.

The legislature also passed a bill for the establishment of a branch penitentiary, to relieve the crowded condition of the one located at Jefferson City. Various towns and cities have been selected by the commissioners; but, so far, none has been approved by the governor, and nothing has been done. It is the hope of many of our most intelligent and philanthropic citizens that, if the branch is not located before the next meeting of the General Assembly, the bill may be repealed, and a bill creating a reformatory for first offenders, after the model of the institution at Elmira, N.Y., may be passed.

A bill was also passed allowing cities of fifty thousand inhabitants to erect reform schools from the proceeds of dram-shop license, at a cost of \$50,000 for buildings and ground. Kansas City is the only city which contains the requisite population. But, when a demand was made upon the county court for an order issuing the necessary amount for the erection of said reform school, the demand was resisted, and an injunction was granted. The case went to the courts; and, on appeal to the Supreme Court, the law was decided to be unconstitutional, on the ground that it was special legislation. There is therefore no present prospect of the establishment of such an institution.

Dr. George C. Cahtell, superintendent of Insane Asylum No. 2, located at St. Joseph, Mo., and Dr. T. R. H. Smith, superintendent of Asylum No. 1, at Fulton, have both passed away since the last session of this Conference. They were both distinguished men in their profession, the latter having served, with the exception of a short time during the war, as superintendent of Asylum No. 1 for nearly forty years.

Little progress has been made in the work of charity organization. It seems impossible to secure co-operation, much less organization, between the different societies charged with the duty of dispensing charity.

Your Corresponding Secretary has requested the governor to recommend in his next message to the legislature the creation of a State Board of Charities, but he declines to give any promise that he will do so. It is the purpose, however, of those interested in the working of our charitable and penal institutions to see that such bill is brought before the next General Assembly.

The jails and almshouses in Missouri are after the old fashion, the former being constructed in the main with reference only to the safe-keeping of the prisoners. Except in rare instances, the health and morals of the prisoners have not received the least consideration. The almshouses are too often only worn-out farms with dilapidated dwelling-houses, bought by the counties chiefly for the benefit of the vendors. Many of them are in most miserable condition, and must remain so till the State charges some one with the duty of visiting them when not expecting visitation.

There being no provision made for criminal or dependent and homeless children in most of the counties, the former find their way into jails, and the latter into the almshouses, called (very properly, in most cases) "poor-farms."

The difficulty of all difficulties encountered by the friends of reform is the absolute *indifference* of the masses, growing, it is believed, largely out of their ignorance of the whole question. Public opinion is therefore vague; and, so far, reforms are attempted only by the few. Still, it is believed that the number is increasing. It has been impossible thus far to induce the press of Missouri to give these questions anything like adequate attention. If some plan could be devised by which the proceedings of this Conference could get to the people, great good would follow.

## NEBRASKA.

Mr. J. A. GILLESPIE, Omaha.—The building at Beatrice for the feeble-minded is nearly completed, as is also the new hospital for the insane at Norfolk. Both will be opened for the reception of inmates in the spring.

There has been an entire change of officers (except the assistant superintendent) at the State Reform School. Mr. Jonathan T. Mallatieu has been appointed superintendent. The school is in better condition now for doing its work than it has ever been. Two new family buildings, a workshop, a bakery, and other improvements, have cost about \$32,000. The manual training-school system is being introduced. The number present during the year was 112; received, 45; granted leave of absence, 18.

The hospital for the insane is still overcrowded. When the new institution at Norfolk is opened, it is hoped that the one at Lincoln will be relieved. During the year, 545 have been cared for; admitted, 185; discharged, 188.

The Institution for the Blind at Nebraska City has had thirty-eight pupils in attendance. Nine were received during the year.

At the Institution for the Deaf and Dumb there have been in attendance one hundred and eight pupils; received, twenty-two. Drawing and engraving have been introduced. The aural method of instructing the semi-deaf is successfully carried on. A water supply has been provided, a tubular well, stand-pipe, new sewerage, new building, smoke-stack, etc., and other improvements, costing in all about \$18,000.

Three hundred and fifty have been cared for at the Home for the Friendless, one hundred and ninety-nine received, two hundred and fifty-four discharged. A new building has been erected, and steam heat introduced, at a cost of \$10,000.

During the year there have been three hundred and thirty-eight on the roll of the penitentiary, of whom three were females; committed, seventy-six; discharged, sixty-nine. When a prisoner is discharged, he is furnished a suit of clothes and five dollars, and started adrift. There should be some organized assistance for him.

In Omaha, the Child's Hospital has cared for one hundred and seventy-four inmates.

The Woman's Christian Aid Society has assisted about twenty-five persons a day, and expended over \$6,000.

The Women's Christian Temperance Union is doing a worthy and unique work,—not only assisting the drunkard to reform, but offering



a temporary retreat for his family. They have a reform club of sixty members to work among the drinking men. They also conduct a Sunday-school for Chinamen.

The young men have lately organized a Charity Union, connected with which is a wood-yard to furnish work for men, who want it.

There are movements inaugurated to organize other charities, as orphanages, a home for fallen women, etc.; but they have not yet assumed sufficiently definite shape to mention in this report. There is also a movement to organize a State Board of Charities, which we hope will be accomplished in the near future. Steps will be taken in this direction at the coming session of the legislature.

#### NEVADA.

Rev. JAMES L. WOODS, Carson City.—We record with pleasure the addition of an industrial department to the State Orphans' Home at Carson City, through a bequest of \$5,000 by the late William Sharon.

In Ormsby County, the Board of Commissioners purchased a farm, and fitted it for a hospital and poor-farm. The good effect was immediately felt. It promoted the comfort of the inmates, and lightened the burden of taxation. The plan excluded some indolent and unworthy ones, and left a few worthy persons who could not remove to the farm to the care of private charity. The anti-Chinese movement, by opening lines of work and, for the present at least, dignifying labor, has given employment to some, thus relieving the charge of their charitable support.

#### NEW JERSEY.

Dr. E. M. HUNT, Trenton.—The last legislature passed a bill authorizing a charity organization similar to those in other States. A committee was also appointed to report as to a women's prison. The Morris Plains Asylum now has Dr. Booth as its superintendent. There has been more real progress the last year than in any previous year in our history. The State Board of Health makes inquiry as to whatever affects the health of inmates, and so is able to secure some reforms. Our State institutions are mostly well managed. The jails have improved a little. But we now have a public sentiment in this State, and mean to move forward. Our Board of Charities and Correction does not do very much, but is preparing to do more. It has but a small appropriation. New Jersey is a conservative State,—very,—but seldom moves backward. New Jersey justice will yet see to it that our dependent penal and vagrant classes shall be looked after more faithfully.

## NEW YORK.

Dr. CHARLES S. HOYT.—There has been no legislation in New York the past year affecting the powers and duties of the State Board of Charities, and its labors have been attended with a good degree of success. The statistical and financial information respecting the various classes of institutions and subjects coming within its purview has been collected and tabulated; and, as this information appears at length in its published annual report to the legislature, which is readily accessible, it need be here only briefly summarized: The property held for charitable and correctional purposes in the State is valued in round numbers at \$50,000,000, the expenditures for the last fiscal year were \$11,500,000, and the average number of beneficiaries was about sixty thousand. Of these, 12,707 were insane, 5,765 of whom were males, and 6,944 females, provided for as follows: In the State hospitals for the acute insane, 1,682; in the State asylums for the chronic insane, 2,561; in city asylums, mainly in Kings and New York Counties, 5,648; in county asylums, 1,475; in county poorhouses, mainly in separate wards or detached buildings, 536; in private asylums, 597; in the Asylum for Insane Criminals, 179; and in the State Asylum for Insane Emigrants, 29. The increase in the insane during the year was five hundred and eighty-four; and, for the past six years, the annual increase has been over five hundred. The county asylums are under medical oversight, with paid attendants and nurses; and a matron and attendants are employed in most of the county poorhouses in which there are insane, so that but few, if any, of this class in the State are without proper supervision. The poorhouses, upon the whole, are in good condition. The officers are generally experienced and capable, and there is no apparent increase of pauperism in the State other than that arising from insanity. A delegate from the State Convention of Superintendents of the Poor—Mr. Charles W. Fuller, of Erie County—is in attendance upon this Convention, and will speak for that organization.

The general policy of the State is in the direction of State care for the insane. Its present accommodations are for about four thousand five hundred patients. The last legislature provided for additional accommodations for the insane, as follows: at the Hudson River State Hospital, for five hundred patients, in plain detached buildings, to be erected at a cost not to exceed \$250 per capita; and, at the Binghamton State Asylum, for two hundred patients. An appropriation was made for a hospital building for men and for the

remodelling of an existing building for women in connection with the Willard Asylum; and provision was made for needed improvements in the State Lunatic Asylum, in the Buffalo State Asylum, and the State Homœopathic Asylum. A commission was also instituted to locate another State asylum for the insane in the northern counties, of which the President of the State Board is chosen to report to the next legislature, with plans and estimates for building.

The legislative appropriations for current expenses to the various institutions of the State are probably adequate for their purposes. Additional accommodations are to be provided for feeble-minded young women at the Newark Custodial Asylum; and a hospital building is to be erected, and other improvements are to be made, at the State Asylum for Idiots. The State Reformatory for Women at Hudson is completed, and it will soon be furnished and opened for inmates. A commission has been appointed, under authority of the legislature, with power to examine into the subject of labor in prisons and penitentiaries, and to report to the next legislature, a large number of the prisoners at present being idle. An act providing for the medical examination of children before admission to asylums was also passed, and it is being generally put into operation. It is designed to guard against the introduction and spread of contagious diseases, especially those of the eyes, in these institutions. Its execution may be attended with some embarrassment.

#### NORTH CAROLINA.

Mr. J. H. MILLS.—North Carolina reports but little progress in her charities and correction. The deaf and dumb and the blind are liberally provided for by the State, and two institutions for their benefit furnish ample accommodations and do good work.

The penitentiary has enlarged its accommodations, and enjoys a liberal patronage. Many of the convicts are employed on railroads, canals, and other public works. Others make brick, cultivate a farm, and do such other work as can be offered them within their enclosure. The large shoe-shop has just been discontinued at the request of the Knights of Labor. We need a reformatory, and will have it some day, if Mr. Hicks, the excellent warden, can secure proper co-operation in that direction.

The Lunatic Asylum at Raleigh, in charge of Dr. Grissom, is generally commended on account of its excellent work and management, in spite of the fact that the legislature reduced the appropriation far below what the officers thought sufficient for its proper efficiency.

The Lunatic Asylum at Morganton, in charge of Dr. Murphy, is nestled among the mountains, and claims the benefit of pure air and mountain water. It is to be finished this summer, and will then increase its capacity to five hundred patients. The per capita expense is \$200 a year. The patients perform a large amount of work on the farm, and in the shops and laundry.

The Lunatic Asylum at Goldsboro, for colored people, in charge of Dr. Roberts, has one hundred and seventy-two patients, its full capacity. It is well managed, but sorely needs enlargement. The Orphan Asylum at Oxford, the property of the Masonic Fraternity, is enlarging its work. The legislature increased its annual appropriation from \$5,000 to \$10,000. The number of inmates averages about one hundred and eighty. As it has published no recent reports, further particulars cannot be given.

The Orphanage at Thomasville has opened two avenues through a well-watered original forest, and is building houses for boys on one and for girls on the other. There will be separate dormitories, school-rooms, and eating houses for each family of twenty-four children. Several buildings have been completed and immediately occupied, and others are in progress. As this work was begun in the woods, its managers were not cramped by any unsuitable buildings erected for other purposes, and will have themselves to blame if they fail to make it a model institution.

North Carolina needs a Board of Charities, a Reformatory for Boys, an Industrial School for Girls, and a School for Feeble-minded Children.

The inmates of the poorhouses, in many counties, receive kind and liberal attention. In some counties, the plan of putting them out to the lowest bidder still prevails, though common sense teaches that a man who intends to feed well cannot bid against one whose purpose is to drive hard and feed light.

A much more liberal provision is usually made for prisoners in the county jails. Rogues and robbers seem to expect, and some have generally secured, better fare than those who are guilty of the sin of being poor.

#### OHIO.

M. D. CARRINGTON.—The last session of the General Assembly of Ohio made but a few changes in laws relating to the organization and government of public institutions.

The State penitentiary at Columbus was reorganized by the enactment of laws relating to the appointment of officers, but otherwise no

changes were made in the law. An entire change of prison officers occurred June 1, 1886. A formidable opposition to the intermediate penitentiary, for which a site had been selected, grounds graded, and plan of building adopted, developed during the session. Owing to the recent introduction of a reformatory discipline, the abrogation of the contract system of prison labor, and the unusual current expense incurred in the State penitentiary, and the further fact of an empty State treasury, many were led to doubt the propriety of any further outlay of public money for a State reformatory prison. A small appropriation was, however, secured; and the foundations of the prison have been contracted for at a sum much less than the appropriation. Appropriations were made for establishing a State Home for disabled Ohio soldiers and sailors and a Working Home for the Blind. Appropriations were also made for the erection of additional buildings, one each, at the Girls' Industrial Home and the Soldiers' and Sailors' Home, and also for the completion of the two dining-halls at the Athens Asylum for the Insane. The latter buildings, just completed and ready for occupancy, constitute a new departure in our State in making provision for the insane. This experiment of large halls for dining-rooms, to which all the patients physically able are expected to go for their meals, with a second floor with large dormitories and a few small bed-rooms, with bath-rooms and closets, where infirm patients can be conveniently served, is regarded with favor. It will vacate nineteen ward dining-rooms, increasing the capacity of the institution from six hundred to eight hundred and fifty patients, and will, while greatly promoting the comfort of meals, secure economy by limiting the waste of food. These buildings, connecting by corridors with the separate wings of the main building, are of brick, quite substantial, handsomely finished, well equipped and furnished, and have been completed at an entire cost of \$40,500. Improvements, increasing capacity and promoting convenience of administration, are being made at Longview Asylum; and work is in progress for the erection of a new wing, which is estimated to cost \$125,000, accommodating three hundred patients. A corresponding wing to the female department will follow; and, when completed, the institution will provide comfortably for one thousand patients. Longview is a county asylum, organized under State authority, the governor appointing two of the five directors. It has its resident medical staff, and is under superior management. A change of officers, including the superintendent, was made during the year at the Institution for the Blind.

As a general thing, the State charitable and correctional institutions are under kind, judicious government, and are economically administered. The aggregate disbursements for State institutions during the year, including the penitentiary and appropriations for new buildings and improvements, was \$1,779,032.23.

The present law of Ohio, forbidding children under sixteen years of age being placed or maintained in county infirmaries, is not fully observed. Thirty-one counties have organized homes, under the control of boards of trustees appointed by county commissioners. Nine counties have erected separate buildings for children on infirmary grounds, the infirmary directors retaining control of the children. Eight counties place the children, at the expense of the county, in local private institutions; other counties send children to other county homes or private institutions, paying for their support, but retaining legal custody of the children,—leaving a total number of children still in county infirmaries on the first day of September, 1885, nine hundred and twenty-four, in violation of law and an outrage upon humanity, simply because no penalty is attached to the law.

There are eighty-seven county and two city infirmaries in Ohio. The system under which these institutions are organized—an elective board of directors, one member elected annually—is not a satisfactory system; and, under it, reforms in administration are not readily accomplished. There is, however, marked improvement from year to year; and the general condition would probably compare favorably with the better class of almshouses throughout the country.

Of county jails, little can be said beyond a disposition, quite manifest, to keep them clean and orderly, and a growing public sentiment in favor of better buildings, so constructed as to admit, if not to require, complete separation of prisoners.

The cost of maintenance, as taken from the last annual report of the Secretary of the Board of State Charities, shows that the total current expenses for year, including salaries, were \$2,473,416.86 for 39,244 persons.

While we commend the fidelity of boards of trustees and the general efficiency of officers of our State institutions, and feel a just pride in the benevolence of our people, who bear cheerfully the burden of their support, this report would be incomplete if we should fail to mention the organized private charities to be found throughout the State, not only in our larger cities, but in smaller municipalities. These are maintained with generous liberality, successfully managed, and are accomplishing, in their respective departments of charitable



work, the thrice blessed result of good to those who give, to those who work, as well as to those who receive. Much of the success attained in the organization and maintenance of private charities, as well as reforms and greatly improved methods in the administration of our public institutions in Ohio, is due to the prudent supervision and intelligent suggestions and active interest of the Board of State Charities.

This mention seems proper at the close of a year during which two members of this board have died, Hon. Charles Roesel of New Bremen and Mr. Joseph Perkins of Cleveland. The former had served for nine years; and, in their memorial of his efficient work in the board and his high character as a man, his colleagues bear witness that his counsel in public affairs was "exceedingly valuable," and that he was "just, equitable, and correct." Like testimony is borne to the Christian character and efficient service of Mr. Perkins, who, from the original organization of the board to the time of his death, "gave freely, to the work of the board, his time, his influence, and his money," and who, "like the Master whom he served, wrought no other honors for himself than such as are found in laboring for the good of men, and especially for the poor, the suffering, the prisoner, the outcast, all of whom, even the lowest and most degraded, he recognized as brethren, having claims that were imperative upon his sympathy and care."

#### OREGON.

Rev. R. M. HILL.—In the State of Oregon, we have now reached what may be properly termed a transition period in matters connected with charities and corrections.

Only a short time since, the State determined to take into its own hands the care of its insane; and, within the last three years, it has finished a large and well-appointed asylum at Salem, the capital of the State. The total number of patients under treatment June 1 was four hundred and fifty-five. Since that time, however, the insane from Idaho have been taken away to the territorial asylum just completed at Blackfoot. These numbered thirty-two. The present management of the asylum is a credit to the State. We have made great improvement on the former contract system.

At the State penitentiary there are at the present time about three hundred prisoners, whose terms of sentence vary from one year to imprisonment for life. Here the old and hardened offenders and the young in years and crime meet with little or no resistance in the

matter of intercourse. The contract system of labor is in vogue; and, at the shops, the prisoners are employed in the manufacture of stoves. Much of the labor on the Insane Asylum was performed by convicts; and, as far as possible, it is proposed to utilize their labor on the public buildings and in the making of brick for public use. In this way, the larger portion of the penitentiary itself has been built; and at this time there are a number of convicts at work on improvements,—a brick wall, towers for the guards, etc.

Lately, the organization of a reform school has been undertaken, and a society has been incorporated; but as yet it has been able to do but little, as it has no building at its disposal. It has, however, done something by its efforts in behalf of juvenile offenders; and its watchful oversight of such will be productive of great good in the future, I have no doubt.

We have secured the passage of a law permitting the arrest of sentence in the case of juvenile offenders, when in the opinion of the judge there is a reasonable hope of reform. This will assist in the work of the Aid Society, as one of the clauses of the law provides for the commitment of the youth to its care. Under this law, several cases have been taken in charge by the society, and homes found for the boys, or they have been sent to sea in care of a good captain.

Our county and city jails are of the usual kind,—places rather for temporary detention than for long imprisonment. For this reason there has been but little attention paid either to their construction or general management. The different counties make provision according to the ideas of the commissioners; and, therefore, in one the county jail is neatly and well kept, while in another there is little to be said in its favor. The same is true of the city jails.

In the matter of the care of paupers, each county has its own system; and hardly any two deal with this problem alike. Usually, all that the public knows about the care of the paupers is what is published when the grand jury reports at each session of the circuit court.

Two years ago, the legislature created an Advisory Board of Pardons, consisting of three members, who are to hold office for terms of four years, and serve without compensation save actual expenses, not to exceed \$5 per day while in session.

The citizens of Salem have purchased a farm for the United States Indian Training-school, and it has been well equipped with suitable buildings.

Our schools for the blind and deaf-mutes are doing fairly well.

The State purchased a building for the use of the blind, which is ample for present needs. This school is entirely under control of the State; and its management is directly responsible to the legislature through the State Board of Education, which consists of the Governor, Secretary of State, and Superintendent of Public Instruction. The school for the deaf and dumb is controlled by a private corporation, although it is aided by the State, and in fact depends almost entirely on the State treasury for the means to carry it on. Originally, it was altogether a State institution; but a few years ago an association was organized to carry on this form of charitable work, and since that time the school has been partly independent of State control. We have no school or home for the feeble-minded or idiotic.

We have organized a Volunteer Association of Charities and Corrections, which, in co-operation with the State Board of Pardons, proposes to do what is possible for the better management of public institutions. The Governor of the State is its president, and in its membership are found many of the best people in the State. We are endeavoring to secure the passage of a law creating a State Board of Charities and Corrections.

#### PENNSYLVANIA.

Mr. CADWALADER BIDDLE, Philadelphia.—The bill making an appropriation to build a new Institution for the Deaf and Dumb at Scranton, which was reported to the Conference as having passed the legislature at its last session, was subsequently vetoed by the governor, for the reason that it had not been recommended by the State Board of Charities.

The bill providing for the appointment of prison inspectors and wardens in county jails, which was reported as having passed the Senate, received, after passing both branches of the legislature, the executive veto, owing to the clause suspending its operation in the different counties until adopted by the county commissioners in the several counties. In the opinion of the governor, this clause brought the bill under the class prohibited by the Constitution as special legislation. The clause was inserted in the Senate, after the bill had been presented to that body, to overcome some objections existing in the smaller counties of the State, owing to the additional expense which it might entail on the counties. It is hoped that, at the next session, a bill, with the same objects in view, but more extensive in its scope, may be passed in such form as will meet with

the executive approval. It is proposed to recommend that the county poorhouses shall be governed by county inspectors, to be appointed by the courts.

The south wing to the Western Penitentiary at Riverside is now building, an appropriation having been made for this purpose at the last session of the legislature. When finished, it will nearly double the capacity of this penitentiary.

The new county jail in Philadelphia County has been begun on plans suggested by our board. Very material alterations were made in those originally proposed for our approval. The jail will cost over \$1,000,000. A new jail in Snyder County is also building. The Allegheny County Jail and the new wing of the Allegheny County Workhouse are nearly completed, and will soon be ready for occupancy. Plans for a new almshouse in Greene County have been approved. A new jail in Lancaster County has been authorized by the county commissioners, and plans are being made for submission to our board.

The legislature authorized the erection of additional accommodations for the insane at the Harrisburg and Norristown Asylums, when the plan shall be approved by the Committee of Lunacy of our board. The act required that, at the Harrisburg Asylum, a detached group of buildings to accommodate three hundred additional patients should be built, and at Norristown two infirmaries, to accommodate each not less than one hundred indigent insane persons. At the latter asylum, two dining-halls, each to accommodate six hundred patients, and a storehouse, were provided for, as well as the purchase of additional land. The Committee on Lunacy having approved the plans for these additional buildings, work on them is now progressing.

In the Philadelphia Almshouse, Mr. George Roney has been elected superintendent, succeeding Mr. George Smith; and Dr. Philip Leidy, physician in chief in the insane department, succeeding Dr. David D. Richardson. Mr. George W. Smith has been elected secretary of the Society to protect Children from Cruelty, in place of Mr. Benjamin J. Crew, deceased. In June, 1885, Dr. Thomas MacIntyre, on account of failing health, declined a reelection as principal of the Western Institution for the Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb; and the Rev. John G. Brown, D.D., was elected in his place.

Three new hospitals for medical and surgical cases have been opened during the year,—one at Altoona, one at Reading, and the

Allegheny General Hospital in Allegheny City. The Hayes Mechanics' Home in Philadelphia, the Presbyterian Home for Aged Couples, and the Indian School for Girls, Delaware County, have also been opened since the last report. Several new homes have been organized, but are not yet ready for inmates.

The jails and almshouses show an improvement; and, should the legislature authorize the suggested changes in the appointment of the directors of them, the benefit derived therefrom would be immediately apparent.

The accompanying tables give the amounts appropriated by the legislature for the State and private institutions at its last session, also the numbers receiving aid in the various institutions.\*

Messrs. Charles J. Harrah, J. Monroe Shellenberger, Geter C. Shidle, and Dr. John K. Lee have been appointed members of the State Board of Public Charities, in place of Messrs. Mahlon H. Dickinson, Lewis Peterson, Jr., W. W. H. Davis, and Dr. Herbert M. Howe, whose terms had expired. Mr. Philip C. Garrett was elected president of the board, and Dr. Thomas G. Morton chairman of the Lunacy Committee, in place of Mr. Garrett, resigned.

#### TEXAS.

Dr. A. N. DENTON, Austin.—A private institution for the care of feeble-minded children has been opened at Dallas.

There are four public charitable institutions in this State,—one for the blind, one for the deaf and dumb, and two for the insane. The approximate number of inmates in these is one thousand; and the approximate cost of maintenance which is drawn from the public treasury, is \$160 per capita, or, in the aggregate, \$160,000 a year.

I cannot answer from personal inspection as to the condition of our jails. But I regret to say that I have reason to believe that many of them are badly constructed with reference to sanitation, and that they are carelessly and badly managed. In their construction, the chief concern of the architect seems to have been strength and security.

There are no almshouses supported from the public treasury in the State. Many of the counties, however, have established what are called "poor-farms," where helpless paupers and many of the milder cases of lunacy are maintained at the expense of the counties. I have no definite information as to the management of these institutions.

\*We are compelled to omit these figures, for want of room. They foot up, in the aggregate, \$2,900,308.71, divided as follows: to State institutions, \$1,895,808.71; to institutions "uniformly aided by" the State, \$641,000; to miscellaneous charities, \$363,500.

Our greatest need at this time is a public institution for the care of feeble-minded children who cannot gain admittance to the asylums for the insane.

Rev. Dr. BUCKNER, Dallas.—I desire to add a few statements to the report from Texas.

Inside the walls, the management of our State prisons, especially in everything pertaining to light, heat, ventilation, and sanitary regulations, is satisfactory to our people, and indeed quite commendable. But concerning the working of convicts on railroads and plantations and elsewhere outside of the walls there is much controversy and no little dissatisfaction. It is argued on one side that outside work is better for the health of the prisoners, and on the other that, owing to the increased facilities and temptations to escape, many a poor fellow is shot down while trying to dodge and distance the guards. Other arguments I need not mention.

Very many of our older jails are without the benefits of convenient construction, ventilation, and other arrangements essential to the comfort and health of prisoners, and not a few of them are offensive to the eye and to the olfactories. Nearly or quite all of those built within the past few years are free from liability to this criticism; and, being usually in our most prosperous and populous communities, they are oftener inspected by volunteer visitors, and are consequently better kept.

We have no State reformatories nor industrial schools. Neither has Texas any institution for feeble-minded children, except the county poor-farms, where imbeciles are thrown in contact with the most vicious, ignorant, and degraded of both sexes. I have in mind one poor girl, whose moral character was never questioned, but who, for the crime of having been born with a clouded intellect, was consigned to a county almshouse, and there exposed to association with men as low and vile as the devil would wish to have them.

As to our prisons and almshouses, I speak from personal observation; for, either in person or by personal inquiry, I have ascertained the facts. I have visited all of them in the State except a few of the county farms.

There are several hospitals for the sick and the maimed, among which three are worthy of note as representing different sections of the State, which has an area of 274,356 square miles. The city of Austin and the county of Travis have an admirably constructed and well-conducted hospital, with a matron whom we captured from Kentucky, where she made a name for herself by her good work in



the cause of humanity. The Sisters of the Incarnate Word have charge of Santa Rosa Infirmary in San Antonio, which is well adapted to the purposes for which it was designed. The last which I shall mention is in my own city, Dallas. Proper construction, cleanliness, good order, wholesome food, careful nursing, skilful medical service, and "faith, hope, and charity" on the part of the superintendent and matron, make it to many a sufferer like an oasis in the desert.

The Catholics have an Orphan Asylum in San Antonio and another in Galveston. There is also in Galveston a Protestant Orphan House, in the management of which some of the Jewish citizens take an active part. The Odd Fellows have recently opened an Orphanage at Corsicana. Bayland Orphans' Home is an old institution in the coast country, now manifesting new life. The Buckner's Orphans' Home, established some five years ago, is caring for about sixty children on an average under its own roof, besides retaining legal authority and oversight of many whom it has conditionally transferred to families, under contract to rear these children properly. This young institution has property worth about \$26,000, and hopes ere long to add another building, at a cost of \$25,000. It is situated near Dallas, and by the provisions of its charter is coextensive with the State in its work and benefactions. It is under the supervision of a board of directors, consisting of nine Baptist deacons.

There was an orphanage at Thorp Springs; but my latest information is that it has ceased operations, at least for the present.

Our people are on the eve of a great awakening to works of philanthropy and charity. Soon will be ushered into existence evening charity schools, day nurseries, and other charitable institutions which will manifest the love of the great Father to the poor through his more fortunate children, and will demonstrate that Texas is in sympathy with the work of this Conference and abreast with other States in the work of charity, as she is in the lead of some of them in her magnificent university and common school fund, which amounts to \$94,847,000.

#### UTAH.

The Conference appointed no Corresponding Secretary for Utah.

#### VERMONT.

Mrs. JULIA C. R. DORR, Rutland.—So far as I can learn, there has been little change in the state of things in Vermont since my last report. Our charitable institutions are well managed, and are

in competent hands. But, in all public matters, innovations move slowly. I must confess, however, that greatly increased cares have prevented me from giving much time to the work of the Conference. May I ask that some one else take my place next year?

## VIRGINIA.

Mr. JOHN B. CRENSHAW, Richmond.—Since our last Conference, Mr. J. L. M. Curry, one of our State Committee, has been appointed Minister to Spain; and Dr. John Pollard, a Baptist minister of this city, has consented to act on the committee in his stead.

Our last legislature incorporated several charitable institutions.

(1) It appropriated \$135,000 for the purpose of establishing the South-western Lunatic Asylum, at Marion.

(2) It passed an act relating to vagrants, which directs magistrates to arrest them and hire them out, to be employed in labor for any time not exceeding three months; and, should they run away from the person to whom they are hired, the penalty is an additional month for each offence, if said offence was without reasonable cause. The party hiring a vagrant is allowed to use a ball and chain for his control. If the party hiring a vagrant will not receive a runaway back, he shall be hired to some other party or sent to any public county work, and, if there be no public work, sent to the county jail to serve out his time on bread and water.

(3) It incorporated the Barrett Humane Society of Fluvanna County, the object of which is to aid the sick and destitute, to bury the dead, to take care of widows and orphans, and generally to cultivate and promote good conduct and correct living among its members.

(4) It incorporated the Aged Men's and Women's Home Society of Alexandria, with power to establish, maintain, and conduct a home for aged men and women.

(5) It confirmed the charter of the Richmond Exchange for Women's Work.

(6) It incorporated the Elba Beneficial and Social Society of Richmond.

(7) It authorized the council of the city of Richmond to establish and maintain a House of Reformation and Workhouse.

(8) It amended the charter of the Little Sisters of the Poor in Richmond.

(9) It incorporated the order of the Sons and Daughters of the Union Star of Chesterfield County, the objects of which are similar to those of the Barrett Humane Society.

(10) It incorporated the Richmond and Allegheny Aid Association, the object of which is to extend relief, in case of sickness, old age, and death, to the employés of the Richmond & Allegheny Railroad Co. and their families, also to the employés of such other railroads as the association may admit to participation in its benefits.

Your committee are deeply impressed, both from information and from personal inspection, with the importance of having a State inspector for the penal and charitable institutions of the State, especially our county jails. He should be a Christian man of enlarged and liberal views, and should be clothed with authority to enforce the laws relating to such institutions. He should be required to report quarterly to the governor; and, in the report for the quarter preceding the meeting of the legislature, he should suggest such changes or additions to existing laws as might appear to him to be important.

#### WASHINGTON TERRITORY.

J. WICKERSHAM, Tacoma.—There has been most satisfactory progress in charitable and penal work in Washington Territory during the past year. Our Eastern friends should say, "Well done"; for this far-away Territory is certainly forging ahead of some of the older States in economical liberality toward the wayward, the defective, and dependent.

An institution known as the "Washington School for Defective Youth" was established by the last legislature, and located at Vancouver, for the "education of the deaf, blind, and feeble-minded." Rev. W. D. McFarland was appointed superintendent of the school, which is under the control of a board of trustees of five members, appointed by the governor. No appropriation was made for buildings, as the number of inmates at first was so small, being only about twenty. The sum of \$7,500 was appropriated for the current expenses of the school to June 30, 1888.

The Insane Asylum was also permanently located at Fort Steilacoom, near Tacoma; and the sum of \$100,000 was appropriated for new brick and stone buildings, which will accommodate two hundred and fifty or three hundred inmates. The old rotten wooden "barracks," so long used, will then be deserted. This institution is still under the able management of Dr. J. W. Waughop.

An act was passed providing for a board of three commissioners to select a location in Eastern Washington (that is, east of the Cascade Mountains) for the establishment of a second insane asylum. Nothing more can be done until the next session of the legislature, in December, 1887.

The territorial penitentiary was also located permanently at Walla Walla; and the sum of \$60,000 was appropriated, which will be added to the "Penitentiary Fund" (about \$10,000) now on hand, for building purposes. The building is to be of stone or brick, with approved steel cells. The present penitentiary at Seatco will be abandoned, and with its miserable wooden walls will go the system of leasing out the convicts. A board of commissioners has charge of the erection of the penitentiary, and the governor will appoint the prison officers.

This completes a summary of the work done by our last Assembly in this cause. Nothing has yet been done toward the establishment of a Board of Charities.

Our county jails are of the usual kind,—pens for the indiscriminate huddling together of all classes, ages, and sexes. There are no poorhouses. Relief is given by the boards of county commissioners, upon application at the home of the applicant.

The following table shows the cost of territorial convicts and insane for the two years from Oct. 1, 1883, to Oct. 1, 1885:—

Keeping territorial convicts, . . . . .	\$41,885.70
Religious services for convicts, . . . . .	104.17
Education of deaf-mutes in Oregon, . . . . .	400 00
Transportation of the insane, . . . . .	12,997.10
Expenses of the Hospital for the Insane, . . . . .	56,721.47
Total, . . . . .	\$112,108.44

Rev. W. D. McFARLAND, Vancouver.—There are other phases of the work of organized charity and reform which need immediate attention in the Territory. Population is rapidly increasing, and many of the new-comers are of such a kind as to need intelligent, kindly, Christian watching. There is a considerable number of vicious youths all over the Territory who should be in some way brought under reformatory influences, and in some cases restrained from scattering seeds of vice.

Our jails and prisons of the Territory are as yet, so far as my knowledge extends, wholly without systematic unofficial inspection; and the almshouses are in the same state. The hospitals are almost wholly sectarian or private, and without inspection.

There are no agencies for the help of released criminals nor the aid of out-door paupers.

The work of the new school under my care is in its infancy, and everything is to be created.

Generally speaking, the Territory needs now, more than everything else, a Board of Public Charities and Correction, properly constituted, with authority to inaugurate and carry forward these various branches of the work of public relief and reform. I shall endeavor to do something in the near future to bring before the proper authorities this need, and, if possible, secure such a public board. The conditions are now comparatively plain; and it will be far easier to give shape to the formation of the various agencies needed than to reform them in later years, when false methods and abuses have produced a vicious system of things.

#### WEST VIRGINIA.

Rev. R. R. SWOPE, Wheeling.—There is little of interest to report from West Virginia, because there has been no session of the legislature held since the last Conference; and, in a State so situated as this, the improvements of which the Conference takes cognizance can only be effected through and by means of legislative action. I have corresponded with the leading men throughout the State during the last year, and hope to secure such aid and encouragement from them as will bring the need of having a State Board of Charities to the attention of the next legislature, which meets in January, and secure action by that body.

The Insane Asylum has seven hundred and sixty-four inmates, and costs the State \$97,020, and the Asylum for the Deaf, Dumb, and Blind has one hundred and eleven inmates, costing \$25,700.

The jails and almshouses are in fair condition, so far as I can ascertain, though there are few that have modern appliances. A State Board of Charities would find much to do in improving these. The superintendent of free schools, in his report to the legislature of 1885, called attention to the necessity of "providing for a school for the reformation of youth charged with criminal offences." He quoted from the report of the superintendent of the penitentiary, which showed "that, of the two hundred and five State prisoners confined therein, fifty-seven were under twenty-one years of age, and some, at the time they were received, not over fourteen." No action was taken upon this matter.

#### WISCONSIN.

Dr. JOHN H. VIVIAN, Mineral Point.—The State Board of Charities and Reform of Wisconsin has little new to report to this Conference.

The building for the School for Dependent Children, the com-

mencement of which was reported at our last Conference, will be completed during the coming autumn. Fears were entertained by the ladies interested in the Industrial School for Girls at Milwaukee that the building of this "State School" would so far deplete their school of its population as seriously to impair its usefulness. We think that these fears are groundless, and that the new institution will be adequately filled without affecting materially either of our present industrial schools.

There have been no changes in the management of any of the State charitable or correctional institutions. The management of all the three semi-State institutions, however, has been changed,—in the Milwaukee Asylum, by the resignation of Dr. Scribner; in the Milwaukee House of Correction, by the resignation of Col. Reis; and in the Industrial School for Girls, by the resignation of Mrs. Cobb.

The frequent visits to and investigation of the county jails and poorhouses have borne the desired fruit in the general elevation of the character of these institutions. Thanks to the close scrutiny of the State Board of Charities, we think that the State of Wisconsin can boast that, with one or two noticeable exceptions, its poorhouses will compare favorably, in their construction, management, and general surroundings, with those of any State in the Union. We do not think, however, that most of these are models to be copied. The work of educating public opinion to the point that it will compel public officials to do their *whole duty* to the poor and unfortunate is continuous and laborious; but we can say that, in this direction, "*the world does move.*" The most marked approval of our labors by the general public in this direction is shown by the fact that nearly every county contemplating building either poorhouse or jail, first of all, consults the Board of Charities as to plan, site, etc., so that some of our newer poorhouses and jails will be models of construction for the purpose for which they are intended.

Two new jails on the separate system are being erected; and one of these, that at Milwaukee, when it shall have been completed, will be in many respects superior to any jail we know in the North-west.

The law gives the different county boards power to pay the sheriffs a *salary*, instead of allowing their compensation to depend on the fees they may collect. Advantage was taken of the former statute in our worst *tramp-ridden* counties. The change has been followed in nearly every case by a marked diminution of the tramp nuisance. As nothing is to be gained to the officers by their frequent arrests, commitments, etc., the jails, jail diets, and general treat-



ment in these counties have become less desirable to these peripatetic gentlemen. They consequently avoid these counties, to the great relief of the community in general, and the tax-payers especially.

The population of the various State and semi-State institutions, for the care of the defective, dependent, and criminal classes is, at the present writing, about as follows :—

State Prison, Waupun, . . . . .	400
House of Correction, Milwaukee, . . . . .	300
Industrial School for Boys, Waukesha, . . . . .	300
Industrial School for Girls, Milwaukee, . . . . .	200
School for Deaf-mutes, Delavan, . . . . .	200
School for the Blind, Janesville, . . . . .	70
State Hospital for Insane, Mendota, . . . . .	527
Northern Hospital for Insane, Oshkosh, . . . . .	640
Milwaukee Asylum, Wauwatosa, . . . . .	306
Different county asylums for chronic insane, . . . . .	908
Total, . . . . .	3,851

A great deal of the time that the various members of the Board of Charities can afford to give to the work of the board is necessarily bestowed on the supervision of our peculiar system of county asylums for the chronic insane. The manifest success of this system, the adoption of which was so earnestly deprecated by many prominent members of this Conference, is a surprise to ourselves. Each year shows the beneficial effect of our system of continuous occupation and absence of all restraint on the chronic insane.

In the majority of these asylums, the open-door system, in its entirety, exists. In these, during the day, not a door is locked, the patients are free to come and go. Over sixty per cent. are engaged on profitable labor; and, while most intelligently and humanely cared for, their labor goes far toward reducing the cost of their maintenance. When this Conference meets again, we expect to be able to report that in *all* our asylums no doors are locked on their inmates.

It will be seen that the number of insane cared for in these asylums will soon exceed those cared for in the State hospitals. Three of these asylums are now in process of construction, and initial steps toward another have been taken. When these shall be completed, we shall be able to gather into them those now in poorhouses, jails, or boarded out in private families, numbering about one hundred and twenty-five to one hundred and fifty, and will so relieve the State hospitals that, instead of being overcrowded, there will be

room to spare. To-day, we find no difficulty in getting counties to build these asylums as fast as they may be needed to provide for the increasing numbers of the insane.

The question is being agitated of the advisability of making one of the present hospitals a hospital in *fact* as well as *name*, and collecting in it all the insane in whose cases reasonable hopes of cure exist, to the exclusion of chronic cases, and reducing the others to the *status* of asylums. To the common mind, it seems the acme of absurdity to build a hospital for the cure of disease, and fill it with incurables.

The various private charities, religious and secular, of the State, continue to do good, each in its own way; and their number is steadily increasing. In one respect, Wisconsin is behind many of her sister States: she has no separate institutions, either custodial or educational, for the care or improvement of the feeble-minded and idiotic, although for years the State Board of Charities have urged the legislature to provide such buildings, etc. Recently, initial steps have been taken toward erecting one or more buildings for the custodial care of these unfortunates, under the same general laws and rules as those under which our county asylums exist. We hope this will lead to the organization by the State, of a school for the education of the feeble-minded.

In reviewing the work of the past year, the Board of Charities cannot but feel gratified by the measure of success that has followed their efforts to secure the most humane and enlightened care of the dependent classes. They congratulate themselves that each year their labors are more appreciated by all thinking people, and feel encouraged to continue in their effort to provide proper care for those who often have no one else to care for them.

#### WYOMING.

Mr. ROBERT C. MORRIS, Cheyenne.—Wyoming, though the youngest of the Territories, is already laying the foundations of a great commonwealth, and will, within five years, be knocking at the halls of Congress for admission as one of the great States of the Union. Bounded on the north by Montana, on the east by Nebraska and Dakota, on the south by Colorado, and on the west by Idaho and Utah, Wyoming contains over 100,000 square miles, an area equal to the States of New York and Pennsylvania combined. In 1869, when the Territory was organized, the population was about 9,000. In 1880, it had increased to 20,000; and, at the present time, it is es-

timated to be over 50,000. With the extension of the North-western Railroad and the Cheyenne Northern, a branch of the Union Pacific, opening up to settlement the most valuable agricultural and mineral lands of the Territory, it is safe to predict that our population will double within the next two or three years. Our people are enterprising and progressive. They appreciate the fact that they are to be the founders of a great State, and are building upon a permanent basis. The legislature of 1886 appropriated \$150,000 for a capitol building, \$50,000 for a university, and \$30,000 for an insane asylum.

Governor Warren, in his biennial message to the legislature last winter, urged the necessity of making some provision for the insane, in the following words:—

No class of unfortunates have more claim upon the bounty of our people than the insane. At the present time there are about twenty patients maintained by the several counties of the Territory, most of whom are confined in a private asylum at Jacksonville, Ill. It would be far better if these patients could remain under the immediate charge of the Territory, instead of having to be transported more than a thousand miles from friends and home. The rapid growth of the Territory will soon necessitate the erection of an asylum; and even now, on the grounds of economy, laying aside those of humanity, the building of such an institution would be money well expended. A building of this character would be an ornament where situated, and a credit to the Territory through whose liberality it had been erected. It would not be necessary to complete the building, but erect a wing or such part of the structure as would meet our immediate wants. There should be extensive grounds, that the expense may be reduced by cultivating a tract of land and furnishing employment to some of the inmates. All of the States and many of the Territories now have in operation hospitals for the insane, but they are generally overcrowded to an extent that does not admit of their receiving non-residents. The insane of Wyoming are confined in private asylums, without such advantages as could be afforded in a home institution.

The legislature of 1886 made an appropriation of \$8,000 for the maintenance of an institute for the deaf, dumb, and blind, for two years, to be located at Cheyenne, *provided* that there should be at least twelve pupils ready to enter the school, and that it should be closed in case the number falls below eight. This measure is regarded as premature, and it is believed will lead to no practical results for the present.

The policy of the counties heretofore has been to afford out-door relief to paupers; but, with the increase of population, it will be

found more economical to erect suitable almshouses. There are few paupers as a class; and, where their misfortunes are such that they are unable to maintain themselves, the rule has been to assist them to return to their friends. Work has been plentiful, and no one who is able to labor need be dependent upon the bounty of the Territory.

Several of the counties have well-appointed hospitals, which provide for the care of the sick, and receive substantial aid from the Union Pacific Railroad and pay-patients. The county hospital at Cheyenne, erected three years ago at a cost of \$30,000, maintained an average of twenty patients last year, at an expense of \$6,000. There has been for several years a hospital at Laramie City, under the direction of a Catholic sisterhood; and there is shortly to be erected a similar institution at Evanston, to cost \$10,000.

The total amount expended for out-door relief in the Territory will not exceed twenty-five thousand dollars.

There is a United States penitentiary at Laramie City, with accommodations for about forty convicts; but all territorial prisoners are sentenced to the Illinois State Prison at Joliet. The Board of Penitentiary Commissioners found, upon careful investigation, several years ago, that, while the cost of maintaining prisoners at the United States penitentiary was one dollar per day, they were able to make a contract with the authorities at Joliet for no greater expense to the Territory than the cost of transportation and furnishing each prisoner discharged by pardon or expiration of sentence the sum of five dollars. Their report shows the number of territorial prisoners remaining in confinement Jan. 1, 1886, to have been seventy-eight.

## XVII.

### Minutes and Discussions.

#### SECRETARY'S REPORT.

##### FIRST SESSION.

*St. Paul, Minn., Thursday night, July 15, 1886.*

The Thirteenth Annual Session of the National Conference of Charities and Correction began on Thursday night, July 15, 1886, in the capitol, St. Paul, Minn. The Conference was called to order at 8 P.M. by the President, William Howard Neff. The chairman of the Local Committee, Rev. M. Mc.G. Dana, D.D., presided over the opening exercises. Prayer was offered by Bishop H. B. Whipple, of Minnesota. In addition to the welcome given by Dr. Dana (page 1), addresses of welcome were made by Hon. L. F. Hubbard, Governor of Minnesota (page 2), by Col. C. D. Kerr (page 4), acting mayor of St. Paul, and by Capt. Russell Blakeley, representing the Chamber of Commerce (page 5).

Responses were made by Hon. Rutherford B. Hayes, ex-President of the United States (page 5), and by F. B. Sanborn, of Massachusetts (page 10).

The President's annual address was made by William Howard Neff (page 12). Dr. Dana read a letter from J. H. Reed, warden of the Minnesota State Prison, presenting a gavel made of four kinds of wood, by a convict, for the use of the presiding officer of the Conference.

F. H. WINES moved that the following committees should be appointed: on Credentials, consisting of five persons; on Organization, consisting of seven persons; on Business, consisting of five persons; on Time and Place of the Next Meeting, consisting of one member from each State and Territory represented, each delegation choosing its own representative, and the President naming the chairman.

Judge RICHARD PRENDERGAST, of Illinois, offered an amendment to the effect that the delegates from each State should select one member for each of the committees named in the resolution. This

was discussed by Judge Prendergast, F. H. Wines, A. G. Byers, and Philip C. Garrett. The amendment was then withdrawn, and the resolution as originally presented was carried.

These committees were afterwards announced as follows:—

On Credentials: H. H. Hart, of Minnesota; J. L. Milligan, of Pennsylvania; J. H. Mills, of North Carolina; M. M. Bane, of Washington Territory; J. G. Buckner, of Texas.

On Business: A. E. Elmore, of Wisconsin; G. D. Gillespie, of Michigan; D. C. Bell, of Minnesota; C. S. Hoyt, of New York; W. J. Sawyer, of Pennsylvania.

On Organization: Philip C. Garrett, of Pennsylvania; W. P. Letchworth, of New York; F. B. Sanborn, of Massachusetts; Dr. Richard Gundry, of Maryland; L. L. Barbour, of Michigan; Bishop Whipple, of Minnesota.

F. H. Wines was appointed chairman of the Committee on Time and Place, and it was announced that the other names would be given at a later session.

Adjourned at 10 P.M.

#### SECOND SESSION.

*Friday morning, July 16.*

The Conference met at 9 A.M., the President in the chair. Prayer was offered by Rev. E. C. Mitchell, D.D., of St. Paul.

The subject for the session was the Reports from States.

The chairman of the Committee, F. H. Wines, called for reports, as follows: General Report of the Committee, read by Gen. Brinkerhoff; from Indiana, by Dr. W. B. Fletcher (page 312), to which he added the following supplementary words:—

Dr. FLETCHER.—The system in Indiana is probably different from that of any other State. In the first place, the trustees are chosen from the party in power, whether Republican or Democratic; and we may safely say that they are entirely partisan. We have for deaf and dumb, blind and insane, two trustees to each institution and a president, who is president of all the boards of these institutions. The management is intrusted entirely to their hands, they appointing the superintendents, and to a greater or less degree nominating or influencing the appointment of all subordinate officers. They provide all supplies and make all contracts, thus relieving the superintendent entirely, and leaving him free to attend to the treatment of his patients. This might have many drawbacks, provided a bad board of trustees should be appointed. But our trustees have labored from the beginning to improve our institutions. The Industrial School for Boys, under Prof. Charlton, is under an entirely different board;



likewise, the Institution for Feeble-minded Children and the Orphans of Soldiers. I could never understand exactly why the feeble-minded children and soldiers' orphans should be in one institution, and I cannot commend the plan. The trustees of the deaf and dumb, blind and insane, are paid a salary of about three hundred dollars, and the president of about fifteen hundred. The Woman's Reformatory Prison is under still another board.

The report from Washington Territory was read by Gen. M. M. Bane (page 342); from Oregon, by Rev. R. M. Hill, D.D. (page 334).

Mrs. Thomas A. Hendricks, widow of Vice-President Hendricks, was called upon for a further report from Indiana relative to the State Reformatory for Women and Girls of which she is president of the board of trustees. Mrs. Hendricks declined to speak; but, at her request, Miss Sarah F. Keely, superintendent of that institution, was asked to make a report.

MISS KEELY.—The institution is about thirteen years old, and is a little different from other institutions of the kind, because we have two departments, a criminal and a reformatory. These are under the same roof, but are entirely distinct. There are 157 girls in the reformatory. None are received over fourteen: that is the law. We keep them till they are eighteen, unless they earlier deserve a ticket of leave. We are sometimes able to get good homes for them, and sometimes they return to their own homes. I think it speaks well for the State that we have only fifty women in the penal department of the reformatory. Perhaps our workhouse takes off a good many of those sent for short sentences. No one is sent to us for less than a year. We find it necessary to keep all employed, and we do a great deal of laundry work and family sewing. We have a dressmaking department on the penal side. Nice needlework is also done, sometimes for persons outside and sometimes for the officers. We require very strict discipline on both sides, yet every means is taken to help these persons up into a better life. An hour is spent with them in chapel every evening, and half an hour is always spent after breakfast in religious exercises.

MR. GALVIN.—Are they kept in separate cells at night?

MISS KEELY.—Yes, entirely separate: no two are allowed together. We have dormitories, but we prefer the separate cells.

MR. SANBORN.—How long are the girls detained there? How many years?

MISS KEELY.—They come in generally about the age of fourteen, but we have twenty-five little girls from the ages of eight to thirteen. We try to keep them separate, although they are in the same building. They have separate play and dining rooms; but, in the school and at work, they are thrown with the older girls. We have two not five and two not seven placed there, because their parents were selling liquor and were put in jail. There is no limit as to youth, but no child should be sent under ten.

The report from the State of North Carolina was read by Mr. J. H. Mills (page 330).

Mr. SANBORN.—There is something peculiar about North Carolina in the abundant provision she makes for her orphans. I want to ask Mr. Mills about it. Is there a larger proportion of orphans there than in other States?

Mr. MILLS.—I do not know. We take care of our children. They are at present trying to build an orphan asylum for colored children in the neighborhood of Oxford. They are collecting money for it now. They have organized a body of trustees and appointed their officers, but they have not begun to build.

Mr. SANBORN.—Is there any provision in North Carolina for county institutions reporting to the State?

Mr. MILLS.—No: no reports are made at all. So far as county poorhouses are concerned, the grand jury takes a day off once a year, goes to the poorhouse, eats a big dinner, asks one question, and goes home.

Gen. BRINKERHOFF.—Has the lease system in connection with prisons been abandoned?

Mr. MILLS.—Our officers deny that there has been any lease system, because the State sends out her own men to feed and supervise the prisoners.

*Question.*—What is the capacity of the prison at Raleigh?

Mr. MILLS.—I suppose about twelve hundred, but it is not full. Many prisoners are at work on the railroads and canals.

*Q.*—Then it is not intended to work them inside the prison walls?

Mr. MILLS.—Yes: they make brick inside, and there is a large shoe-shop; but the Knights of Labor compelled the man to break up his contract, and leave it.

Mr. SANBORN.—Will Mr. Mills give us his own ideas about the lease system?

Mr. MILLS.—I can answer that by saying that I am squarely opposed to any system of slavery by the State. If a man owns a slave, then his own peculiar interest, humanity, and religion, all put together, influence him to treat that slave well. But, if a State owns a slave, it is different. A State has no soul, conscience, or religion; and it just gets all the money out of him that it can. When the man's slave dies, it is a dead loss to him; but, if the State loses a slave, why, it just grabs another. Does that answer my friend's question?

Mr. SANBORN.—Exactly.

The report from the State of California, prepared by Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper, was read in her absence by Mr. McCulloch (page 304).

The report from Ohio, prepared by M. D. Carrington, was read in his absence by Judge M. D. Follett (page 331), with comments.

The following is a summary of Judge Follett's remarks:—

Judge FOLLETT.—Our legislature was not in a condition to pass many laws until May, when the Senate, as some claim, was revolutionized. Within a few days after that, the legislature passed various laws. So the impression must not be made that the State of Ohio does not make any changes. It is, in fact, like other States. An entire change of prison officials took place June 1. It took but a few days to change the whole organization of that body, which, as we all know, did not adjourn till the very last of May, and before June 1 a new set of officers took control. In connection with what has been said from Indiana, I may say of Ohio that she has never had but thirty-three women in her penitentiary. Two weeks ago, she had twenty-three. The number has been down to seventeen. This is not because the women of Ohio are more virtuous than elsewhere, but because the women that in other States go into penitentiaries, with us, are sent to the workhouse. There is in the legislature a strong feeling of opposition to the Reformatory; but I think that the work of the State Board of Charities and the work of others will overcome it, and that we shall ultimately secure a reformatory penitentiary. A small appropriation was secured, and the foundations have been laid.

Dr. DANA.—Will Judge Follett state the objections urged against a reformatory prison?

Judge FOLLETT.—I think the objections arise from the fact that people do not understand it. There has never been a full, intelligent discussion of the subject.

Mr. GARRETT.—What are the difficulties in removing children from poorhouses?

Judge FOLLETT.—We have no place to put them in. That is a question constantly coming up.

Gen. BRINKERHOFF.—There are objections to a reformatory system in any State where it does not exist, but that battle has been fought and won in Ohio. The majority of the people now intelligently understand and indorse it. We have educated them up to it. In regard to the matter of children in the poorhouses, I was the man who drafted the bill to take them out. I left out the penalty, because, if I had left it in, I could not have got it passed. We are having new children's homes every year. In less than five years, every county will provide for its homeless orphans and children.

Mr. BARBOUR.—Is a county better than a State institution?

Gen. BRINKERHOFF.—We believe that a county home is better than a State one for a State so large as ours. Our county homes are simply places of shelter for children until we can secure homes for them.

Dr. DANA.—How did you succeed in winning the battle about reformatory prisons? That is a deep question for us here in Minnesota.

Gen. BRINKERHOFF.—You must take the legislature man by man, and talk to them. There is no difficulty, when you can talk with a

man for half an hour. One word in regard to political interference. We have made a great advance in that respect. Under the administration of Gov. Foster, political organizations were practically abolished for four years in our benevolent institutions. Under Gov. Hoadly's administration there was no political reorganization in any institution of the State of Ohio except the penitentiary. The present governor took the position that there should be no political reorganization in any benevolent institution. The blind institution has been reorganized, and I am very sorry for it; but the way the change was received by the people indicates that it is the last one that will be made in a benevolent institution, because the people will not tolerate it.

The report from Colorado (page 305), prepared by Mrs. J. S. Sperry was read by Rev. E. C. Brooks, who added a few remarks:—

Mr. BROOKS.—After our legislature appointed a chaplain to the prison, and we entered upon our work, we found that there were fifty or sixty men who could neither read nor write. I organized a school, and called for volunteer teachers. I divided them into classes of six or eight, and placed them under teachers selected from their fellow-prisoners. There is not now a man who cannot read and write English, unless it is a Mexican, there. . . . We have also lessons in reading in Spanish, French, and German, and in arithmetic. We have a course of lectures on week-day nights. Gen. Cameron has delivered lectures on the science of common things, natural philosophy, etc. We have also had some help from outside. In this way, we have kept the minds of the men occupied; and that has done much to lessen plans for escape, and it has assisted in the discipline of the penitentiary. We have no difficulty in securing work for our men. We can secure good employment for our discharged men on the railroad, if they desire to work. . . . We have five female convicts. Until Gen. Cameron was warden, there was no separate care for the women. When he came in, he tried to get the commissioners to arrange for a matron, but did not succeed. The law, however, allowed him to employ what guards he needed; and he said he did not propose to employ a man to look after these women. He employed a woman as guard, and thus instituted this reform. As to tramps, we have no way of caring for them. They are fed at back doors, as a rule. We have no reform school for girls, and no arrangements for taking care of those that need such care.

The report from Missouri was made by Rev. T. P. Haley (page 325).

Rabbi SONNESCHEIN added a few words, referring to the loss of the State in the death of Bishop Robertson, and hoping for the formation of a State Board of Charities at no late date.

The report from the State of Maryland (page 318), made by G. S. Griffith, was read by Dr. Gundry.

The report from the State of New York was read by Dr. C. S. Hoyt (page 329).

The chairman of the Committee on the Reports from States called on Judge Richard Prendergast — who, he said, had done so much for the care of the insane — to report for Illinois.

Judge PRENDERGAST.—My experience with the insane is not that of the physician, nor have I any technical knowledge of the subject. It is simply practical knowledge, acquired by experience. We have in Cook County, Illinois, a system of trying a question of insanity before a court and a jury. No commitment is allowed without its being ordered by court or verdict by jury. The practice was formerly to confine those charged with insanity or alleged to be insane, previous to the trial of that question, in the common jail. Thus, a woman alleged to be insane,—and that affliction may come into any family,—if she could not be detained at home until the day of trial, was placed with the most debased characters to be found in the slums of our city, confined on criminal charges in the jail. Insane men were confined in that department of the county jail where men were held for criminal offences. The treatment of these unfortunate men was brutal and barbarous in the extreme, and they were considered fit and proper subjects for the sport of those mischievous urchins who were found there. They were subjected to all sorts of indignities. At present, we have a system of detention, by which the insane women are in charge of a woman, whose husband is in charge of the insane men; and I am astonished to find that about one-third of those arrested on the charge of insanity for the last three years have been discharged from this place of detention cured, without the trial and without having been sent to the insane hospital at all, thus avoiding the very great misfortune to the individual and sorrow to the family of an adjudication of insanity and commitment to a lunatic asylum. I mention this to show what can be done even without the aid of statutes. We have, on the average, from ten to fifteen trials for insanity every week; and we should have about one-third more but for this preliminary system of detention, where the inmates are treated as sick persons. Too much cannot be said in praise of the county board and the officials in charge of this matter. We have in Illinois State hospitals for the insane. I make no complaint against them, but there is one defect in them: they have seemingly determined to exclude chronic cases of insanity, thus laying upon the counties all the care of the chronic insane. I think the State should take care of the chronic cases, and that they should not be sent to the inferior institutions known as county asylums,—inferior because without proper means and conveniences.

Mr. GALVIN.—I would like to ask if, in the opinion of Judge Prendergast, it would not be a far wiser plan to refer this subject to a body of impartial physicians,—not men in charge of private asylums,—who stand high in the community for their intelligence, ability, and humanity, and thus avoid the publicity of a trial by jury in cases of alleged insanity.

Judge PRENDERGAST.—I am in favor of trial by jury, but am op-

posed to publicity. There is less of this than there has been. I think if editors were personally seen that these matters might be suppressed. The court should prohibit the publication, but should leave the proceedings open.

Dr. GUNDRY.—What is the length of time between a person's arrest and his trial for insanity?

Judge PRENDERGAST.—Thursday is the time for trial. Persons clearly and without doubt insane, who are brought in during the week before that time, are tried that morning. If there is any doubt, they are kept from two to five weeks under care.

The Committee on State Boards of Charities reported through the chairman, H. H. Giles (page 19).

A paper prepared by Hon. John W. Andrews, of the Ohio State Board of Charities, entitled "The Extension of State Boards to all States and Territories" (page 26), was read by Mr. McCulloch.

On motion, this paper was referred to the Business Committee.

Mr. GARRETT reported from the Executive Committee the following resolutions, which were adopted by the Conference:—

*Resolved*, That each Conference is expected to provide for the payment of its own bills and expenses; and any surplus, whether of money, books, or other property, shall be turned over to the treasurer for the general purposes of these Conferences, subject to the disposal of the Executive Committee.

*Resolved*, That F. E. Sanborn be appointed treasurer of the Conference.

*Resolved*, That, while it is expected that the Local Committee will pay the cost of reporting and editing the Proceedings as heretofore, the Conference hereby appoint Mrs. Isabel C. Barrows official editor of the Conference.

*Resolved*, That the size of the volume of the Proceedings of the Conference for 1886 shall not exceed 450 pages.

W. ALEXANDER JOHNSON, chairman of the Committee on the Organization of Charity, announced the following section meetings, to be held in the Senate Chamber:—

Saturday, 12.15 P.M. "How to interest New Workers." Leader, Rev. Oscar C. McCulloch, of Indianapolis.

Monday, 12.30 P.M. "Co-operation among Distant Cities." Leader, Mr. Blaine, of Louisville.

Tuesday, 4 P.M. "Teaching Charity Organization in High Schools." Leader, N. S. Rosenau, of Buffalo.

Wednesday, 3.30 P.M. "The Financial Problem of Charity Organization Societies." Leader, Dr. Kloma, of Baltimore.

Adjourned at 12.25 P.M.



## THIRD SESSION.

*Friday afternoon, July 16.*

The Conference met at 2.30 P.M., the President in the chair.

Mrs. G. B. Marsh was asked to report for the Industrial School for Girls of Illinois, of which she is president.

Mrs. MARSH.—We have in Chicago the only industrial school in the State for homeless and dependent girls, although one has been organized at Springfield. We receive children from three years of age up to seventeen; and our plan is to instruct them in useful branches of education, so that they may be self-supporting and self-respecting girls at the age of eighteen, when they claim their majority. It is eight years since our school was chartered; and each year shows the greater needs of such a school, and that a private corporation, unless richly endowed, cannot secure the wished-for results. We have a bill drafted to present to the next legislature, relating to the industrial training and reformation of girls. I feel that it must be broadened to include boys. It has been mentioned here that there are very few women in State prisons, and this fact is sometimes urged as a reason for giving less thought to reformatory work among women. But this state of things is often due to the courtesy and sympathy of our brothers. I know at least one judge who said that he had let as many as twenty-five women go unpunished, because there was no place to send them except the Bridewell or the penitentiary, where their associates would be the lowest criminals. If women make themselves liable to the law, let them feel the penalty of it; but let suitable provision be made for them,— industrial schools for the younger and reformatories with industrial departments for the older. In our school, we have at present one hundred and eight girls, thirty-two under ten years of age. They do all the work under skilled teachers, which makes our expenses greater than in some institutions. During the last month, they have averaged ninety loaves of bread each day, and have laundried 4,567 pieces. We feel that we are doing a good work, as are our Catholic friends also; but we are reaching only a small part of those who should be wards of the State.

A paper was read by Dr. A. G. Byers on "The Administration of Poorhouses and Jails" (page 31).

## DISCUSSION OF POORHOUSES AND JAILS.

Mr. WRIGHT thought that the cause of most of the evils in connection with poorhouses was the comparatively narrow experience of the management of those institutions. The remedy is to bring in a wider experience. By such meetings as the Conference affords, by visiting other States and other institutions, the best methods may be learned and errors may be avoided. The evils that appear are not the result of malicious intention to do wrong, but they come from lack of sense and thought and knowledge.

Bishop WHIPPLE, of Minnesota, said that he had been profoundly impressed with the reading of the Proceedings of the Conference, and had learned from them many a lesson to help him in his work. He had been afraid that the great, underlying truth might be forgotten,—that man can never protect his social relations without the recognition of his accountability to the standard of right that is outside of himself, and his obligation to God. In the criminal class, this has been lost. He rejoiced that the time had come when it is recognized that no man has wandered so far that there is not room for him in the love of God, his Father, and that he has the right to loving help at every step of his return; that, no matter how far he may have wandered, the very moment he takes the first step, he is no more a prodigal,—he is a returning son. But the mischief that is seen in our institutions is very largely due to the placing of improper persons in the administration; and, too often, Christian folk, like the priest and the Levite, pass by on the other side, and give no aid.

On invitation to take part in the discussion, ex-Gov. Hoadly said:—

I know a jail in my own State of Ohio that, if I could bring it here, would empty this house quicker than a fire, unless you stayed from a sense of duty. I know more than one such jail, but I know this one specially; and its condition is such as to disgrace every decent citizen of the county in which it is. Let me tell you what it is like, and then you can say whether there is not a call for John Howard to rise from his grave and look at the jails of Ohio. It is under ground; it has an open water closet; there are three cells on each side of the privy vault. Here may be immured honest men, not criminals only, but witnesses detained under the law of Ohio, too poor to give bond for their appearance—this in an enlightened Christian State. It is the worst jail in the State. I pardoned three men out of it, because the county had failed in its duty to have a decent jail; and they were suffering in health. I know another about as bad. There is but one jail in all the eighty-eight counties of Ohio that is absolutely and completely fit for the purpose for which jails are constructed. In Gen. Brinkerhoff's county, they could not make a bad jail. With that exception there is not one in the State that is all it ought to be. With what Dr. Byers has said as to the construction of jails, I agree with all my heart. Usually, the outside is built as an advertisement for the architect, and the inside for security, that the prisoner shall not escape; and these two thoughts of the architect and of the county commissioner dominate the building from beginning to end. It is time for the State of Ohio—I hope in other States the jails are fit for the habitation of people—to reform its system in this matter. We are behind the times. Twice, I suggested to the General Assembly of Ohio that at least this should be done,—that no plan of a county jail should be adopted without the approval of the central State authority. The time will come when some man

in the General Assembly with enlightened comprehension and heart alive to the subject will take up this subject and push through this reform. Jails should not be nurseries of crime, as to-day so many of them are in the State of Ohio.

Dr. BYERS.—I do not want the impression to go out that we have not some jails in Ohio that are an improvement on those which have been mentioned. In Richland County, we have not the best jail in construction, but the best governed one; and we owe it largely to Gen. Brinkerhoff. At the time when we had failed to make its construction what we wanted it to be, three noted "crooks" took advantage of the wrong construction, and got out. The rule of absolute separation was subsequently made, and since then maintained at all times; and we have now the best governed jail, outside of Boston, in the United States.

Bishop KNICKERBOCKER, of Indiana.—I suppose the object of a Conference like this is to send out a moral influence which shall help to reform and bring about a correction of the state of things that have been described here. My own experience of jails is that they are cages, in which, indiscriminately, young and old, honest and dishonest, are herded together, like brutes. I believe that Dr. Byers has the right idea, and that the State is the proper authority to control these things. A reform in this matter might be brought about through the influence of Boards of Charities. It is a matter to thank God for that men and women gather together to take counsel as to the reformation of such evils. We feel our helplessness when we try alone to do anything in the way of reform; but the influence of a Conference like this, radiating throughout the country, leads us to hope that a great reformation may be brought about.

Gen. BANE.—How are we to get the doctrines that are crystallizing in the souls of the best men known to the nation on to the statute book? In Washington Territory, we are laying the foundations of a young State, and we want to build on the solid work of genuine reform; but how are we to get these ideas into the minds of the legislators? Too many of them are elected by the saloons and the grogeries. You cannot get men much above the level of the community, in this way. You have therefore got to go to them, and talk with them man by man, touching first the heart and then the head, then write the bill for them, and stand by them till it becomes a law. We want you to crystallize your ideas into a statute that shall stand the criticism of the courts and of the people. I offer a resolution looking to this end.

The resolution offered by Gen. Bane was referred to the Business Committee (page 328).

Dr. HALEY.—I have been listening, hoping to hear something of a matter which concerns us much in Kansas City. I am always pained when I see a man go to prison, whether as a witness or as a criminal. All that has been said here has been with reference to men. I have not heard a word about women. In the city in which I live, only a

few weeks ago a lady of refinement, finely educated, of good personal appearance, and her daughter—a girl of sixteen—were accused of arson by some man who had sold them furniture on monthly instalments. They were arrested. Where should they be carried? Our jail is under ground, poorly lighted, ill-ventilated, with all the prisoners in one pen. Into this common jail were thrust this lady and her daughter, and by the delays of the law were there perhaps a month before the time of trial. On the day of the trial, it was discovered that it was a mistake, and that they did not burn the house at all. It was a disgrace to the city to have sent them to such a place. "But," said the authorities, "we had no other place to send them." Again, a little colored boy, eight years of age, one winter day, seeing a chance to put a pair of shoes on his feet, took it; and the policemen—who are always about when children and weak men are to be discovered—were on his track in a moment, and this little boy of eight was put into this pen with those hardened wretches and criminals, to remain an indefinite time. When I left home, three little boys, who had been so unfortunate as to pick up some scraps of copper, were lying in this common jail; and no one knows when their day of trial will come. A very decent young man was suspected of robbing his employer. I have not seen a nicer young man in a long time. He was as lovely a boy as is in any one of your own homes. After the boy had been contaminated in the jail, it came out that he had been innocent of the crime alleged against him. What is to be done with women who are arrested, with boy criminals, and with persons suspected of crime?

Bishop GILLESPIE.—The mention of a State Board of Charities is always received with favor. There seems to be no dissension as to the value of these boards; but I wish to say that, when we come to the practical part of the work, these boards have not altogether a smooth time, and this grows out of the nature of their duties. For instance, the members of such boards have to examine and give their criticism upon the estimates of different institutions. It is human nature that the boards of control and the superintendents of these institutions do not like to have their estimates criticised. I think it is very much their way to ask for a larger amount than they will absolutely need, because they think that, if this amount is cut down, they will still get what they need. Hence, a Board of Charities is likely to be brought into friction with the boards of control of institutions. Then, again, we have a great deal to do with the matter of county jails and poorhouses. And, if there is any secession left in this country, it is left in counties. If there is any body of men that wants to act separate from everybody else, it is a board of county supervisors. They are the men who do not like the slightest amount of dictation; and, though they may have a jail as bad as that described, still they are much aggrieved if any one presumes to say a word against it, outside of the county. As the result of some experience, therefore, I wish to give a word of advice which may help to make the State Board popular among the people. We have found in our own State the great benefit of an annual convention for papers and discussions,

a modified form of the Conference that you have here. A great deal may also be accomplished by getting hold of the columns of the newspapers, and putting forth the advantages of these boards. Get the people on your side. Make them the friends of Boards of Charities, if you want to succeed.

EX-PRESIDENT HAYES.—Of the topics of to-day there is but one about which I care to say anything. It seems to me extremely desirable that every assemblage of this sort should contrive, before it adjourns, to arrive at some practical result,—to be able to recommend to the public the adoption of some measure that will be useful, and to take some step that shall bring it before the public in a way that will give it a fair chance for success. Thus far, it seems to me that one of the most important subjects presented, and one that is plainly practicable and easily accomplished, is that which was presented to us in the paper of Mr. J. W. Andrews, of Columbus, Ohio,—the paper on Boards of State Charities. That has been referred to the Business Committee of this body, and I trust that that committee will take suitable steps to bring before the legislatures of the States not having such boards the importance of this subject. We shall not win all the States the next year, that is certain. We may not win a majority, but we shall win some of them. In work of this sort, we can do but little at a time. We have not got all the jails of Ohio as they should be. If we have the poorest jail, as Gov. Hoadly thinks, we have also the distinction of having, perhaps, the best; and so we keep up the reputation of Ohio at both wings.

DR. BYERS.—I am authorized by Mr. Andrews to say that, if it should be the judgment of this Conference that some committee should be formed to present this subject to the legislatures, while he could not give any personal labor, he would stand with open hand to contribute to such work, and, when the committee is made up, he will be ready to state his propositions.

A resolution was offered by Mr. LETCHWORTH to the effect that the President should appoint a committee, consisting of five persons, of which Mr. Andrews should be chairman, to carry out the suggestions of Mr. Andrews and of ex-President Hayes. On motion, this was referred to the Business Committee.

#### DISCUSSION CONTINUED.

MR. REED, of Denver.—I come from a practical country, where we treat practical subjects in a practical way. In dealing with this question of the vagrant, ordinarily called a tramp, I want you to consider the place that we have to send him on a winter night. He is a man guilty of being without money, without food, and without work. And we send him to the place of the thief and the drunkard. Is it any wonder that he comes out a criminal? But we are attempting to improve things. We have in Colorado a handsome prison; and the warden, on Sunday, has a meeting for the prisoners, though citizens

can attend, if they wish. This meeting is so popular that I read a protest not very long ago, signed by five of the ministers of Cañon City, asking that that warden should not make that service so interesting, as it was breaking up their congregations. While Mr. McCulloch and I were serving as ministers in Indianapolis, we carried on a work in the poorhouse there which lasted some time; and the evils that existed then do not exist there now, and never will again. Gov. Hendricks worked faithfully with us all that time.

Mr. WRIGHT.—Any one who wishes to know how to take care of the homeless poor can see how to do it by visiting the Friendly Inn at Indianapolis.

Dr. HILL.—It is because some of us have a personal knowledge of the inside of jails and of prisons and of almshouses that we desire to secure the establishment of State Boards of Charity and Correction. We want jails that will prevent the abuse of the innocent, and will further the reformation of the criminal. We come here for suggestions that we may lay before our legislature. If you could send to Oregon some good man whose whole soul is in this work and who has had experience, then I am sure we should make progress in the direction of establishing such a board. But it has been suggested here that members of State Boards should receive salaries. I am afraid, in our country,—men are so anxious to hold office and the politicians have such control,—that the moment you would fix a salary, that moment you would destroy the usefulness of your board. We want men who will take hold of this work from love, and a determination to spend their substance in it if necessary, that they may lift up the State to the highest level which it is capable of attaining. Aside from that, I can subscribe heartily to the report of Mr. Giles. I have brought with me a draft of a law which will be presented to our next legislature, and I propose to embody in it everything in this direction which is of recognized value and which will prove useful to us in Oregon.

Mr. BURNELL, of Chicago.—The question of the arrest and care of women, that has been referred to, is really a very important one. I have visited the police station in Chicago for the last ten months a good many times; and I have seen young girls arrested for their first offence, and sent to the Bridewell again and again. I have afterward talked with them in their cells, and have found how innocent they were really,—how they had been tempted and had yielded, and how utterly without mercy they were sent up. It is only within five years that our police stations have had any matrons; but they are now doing royal work, to which I am glad to bear testimony.

The Committee on Time and Place was announced, as follows:—

Colorado, Rev. Myron W. Reed.  
Connecticut, Mrs. V. T. Smith.  
Dakota, Dr. O. W. Archibald.  
Dist. Columbia, Mr. H. C. Spencer.  
Illinois, W. J. McGonigle.  
Indiana, Rev. O. C. McCulloch.

Iowa, Margaret Cleaves, M.D.  
Kentucky, Peter Caldwell.  
Maryland, R. J. Kirkwood.  
Massachusetts, H. S. Shurtleff.  
Michigan, J. J. Wheeler.  
Minnesota, Gen C. H. Berry.



Missouri, Rev. S. H. Sonneschein.  
 Nebraska, Rev. Robert Doherty.  
 New York, Isaac Gibbon, D.D.  
 North Carolina, J. H. Mills.  
 Ohio, R. B. Hayes.

Oregon, Miss Helen F. Spalding.  
 Pennsylvania, J. W. C. O'Neel, M.D.  
 Rhode Island, Mrs. J. K. Barney.  
 Texas, Rev. R. C. Buckner, D.D.  
 Washington Ter., Gen. M. M. Bane.

Wisconsin, A. O. Wright.

Adjourned at 5 P. M.

#### FOURTH SESSION.

*Friday night, July 16.*

The Conference met at 8 P.M. in the hall of the High School, the President in the chair.

Addresses were made by Rt. Rev. John Ireland, Bishop of Minnesota, on "The System of Charities in the Catholic Church" (page 38), and by Judge Richard Prendergast, of Chicago, on "State Aid to Private Institutions" (page 161).

The Conference then adjourned to the capitol, where a reception was given to the delegates by the citizens of St. Paul and Minneapolis.

#### FIFTH SESSION.

*Saturday morning, July 17.*

The Conference met at 9 A.M., the President in the chair. Prayer was offered by Rabbi S. H. Sonneschein.

Reports from States were continued.

The report from Texas, prepared by Dr. A. N. Denton, was read by Rev. R. C. Buckner, D.D.

The reports from Massachusetts, prepared by Col. Gardner Tufts and Rev. John D. Wells, were read by F. B. Sanborn.

A paper on "The Care of the Chronic Insane in Families" (page 260) was also read by Mr. Sanborn at this time, as he was not to be present on the day assigned to the subject of insanity. At the close, he added the following details of methods:—

MR. SANBORN.—The selection of insane patients to be boarded out is very carefully made. The method is this: The superintendent of each hospital, of which we have four, and one asylum, is requested to furnish a written list of those patients who can safely and comfortably be boarded out. When that list is made, I visit each one, look up their medical record and the record of their family, correspond with the family, and ascertain as much as can be learned concerning the previous history of the patient. If it then seems suitable, I look for a family among those who have applied for such boarders. Each application for boarders is recorded, when received; and, as soon as possible, the family is visited, usually by a woman. And, if the

family is reported as suitable, the name is put on the list for such boarders as we can furnish. If unsuitable, we drop the application. I then send the patient — women usually with women — to the family selected. The family is instructed by a printed circular and verbally as to the proper care of the patient, whose history, so far as is proper, is given. And they are requested to communicate frequently with me in regard to the conduct and condition of the patient. The patients also have writing materials, and can, and often do, write to me. The law requires that they shall be visited once in three months, but they are visited oftener than that. A woman visits all the women, and a man the men; a medical officer also, where it seems best; and, at certain times, this medical visitor, who is a man, visits all the cases. I also have reports from various persons in the community, with reference to them. I am more fully acquainted with their condition than the State authorities generally are with the condition of the children boarded out. Nothing important can happen to them without my knowing it within a very short time.

The report of the Committee on Kindergartens was made by the chairman, Miss Anna Hallowell, who read a paper on "Free Kindergartens," prepared by Miss Constance Mackenzie, of Philadelphia (page 48); also, a paper by Rev. R. Heber Newton, D.D., of New York, on the Kindergarten as a Preventive of Crime (page 53).

Miss Emily Huntington, of New York, was invited to speak on her work in the kindergarten.

MISS HUNTINGTON.—It is a delight to see people interesting themselves for children; and I shall be glad to say a word, if it can help in this direction. I live in a mission house, in a part of the city where once were the dens of thieves and murderers; and there I have lived for twelve years, and a great deal of this work has come under my own eyes. Our kindergarten is in our Sunday-school room. We have also in connection with it a day nursery, where we do as well as we can with our means. On Monday morning, the benches are pushed aside; the table, on which the children are to have their materials, is pushed out; and, from a store-room, about twenty cradles, with chintz curtains, are brought in. Bits of carpet are spread for the little ones to sit on; and a few pens are made around the carpets for the children old enough to run about, but who cannot climb over these seats. I always fix a child so that it cannot do a thing, instead of saying all the time, "Don't, don't" do this or that. At seven in the morning, a woman makes a fire; and the poor women bring in their babies. Some are so little — there is one not more than two months old — that they go right into the cradle. The others have their things taken off, and are made ready to play with the blocks or the rocking-horse or whatever it may be. At noon, when they have their dinner, they march up to the sink and are washed, and then march to the table. At half-past two, the little

ones are put to sleep and laid away in the cradles with a netting over them, and the kindergarten teacher comes. Those old enough are then taught; and, sometimes, even the little ones claim this pleasure. I remember one baby of eighteen months that cried like a trooper, because he could not do as the other children did. Unless one has seen it, he can have no idea what that kindergarten has done for the children of the Wilson School. At five years of age, they go to the infant school, where they learn reading and other branches.

Miss Clara Barton, being asked to speak of the Red Cross, of which she is president, said:—

MISS BARTON.—Some of you may have noticed a little, unpretending, one-story building in the rear of this room, which has sprung up like a mushroom in the night. It is new to me, as to you; but I recognize it as belonging to my work, and own it as one of my children. I have been requested by Dr. Hoyt to call your attention to it, and introduce to you this little Red Cross child. This structure is a portable hospital, designed for field use in the relief of the wounded and sick in armies. While it contains twelve beds, with stools, tables, screens for each, with many ingenious appliances,—when packed, it is but the same load for a span of horses as a ton of coal, and can be unloaded and set up for use by two men in a couple of hours.

The Red Cross has existed about twenty-five years. Its third General Conference was called in 1883, at Geneva, Switzerland, the seat of its International Committee. This conference consisted of delegates from every civilized nation. Crowned heads sent their representatives to sit in council for the purpose of considering the best methods yet advanced by all progressive nations toward the mitigation of the suffering of war. The Government of the United States appointed three delegates to this convention, of which I, as President of the American Red Cross, was chairman. The conference met on the 1st of September, continuing a week, and was composed of between one and two hundred military, medical, and philanthropic men as delegates. During its session, a telegram was received, announcing that her Majesty, the Empress, and head of the Red Cross of Germany, offered a prize to whomsoever in the world should invent and bring forward the best portable field hospital for the use of the sick and wounded in war. The prize contest would be held the following year at Antwerp, where the judges would hold their seat. The successful contestant would receive from her Majesty a prize of five thousand francs and a gold medal. It was desired of all delegates present to take copies of the circular to their country, state the offer, and distribute them among the people.

Later, I passed two weeks with her Majesty and daughter, the Grand Duchess of Baden; and the matter was thoroughly talked over. I saw how great was her Majesty's desire that some advance in this direction should be made. She begged of me that I would make her offer generally known in America. On my return, I trans-

lated the circular, had it reprinted in English, and with the co-operation of Judge Sheldon of New Haven, one of the government delegates, gave it pretty general circulation through the press. A copy of one of the judge's articles chanced to fall under the eye of Mr. Charles Ducker, of Brooklyn, N.Y.,—singularly enough neither a military nor a medical, but a business man, possessing, however, fine inventive talent, taste and experience, but not a man who would have been supposed to understand the mastery of hospitals.

Mr. Ducker designed and constructed a hospital, and entered it at Antwerp for competition among seventy others, from England to Algiers.

At the time when the matter was first discussed in our Conference, a military gentlemen present asked me if America would compete. I said I thought she would, and, if she did, she would be likely to trouble the judges in their assignment; that I did not suppose the first prize would come over the water to America, for that was not the nature of things, but that our inventors were clever, and might be felt there. However this might have been, nothing could have exceeded the cordial courtesy extended to us through the recognition of Mr. Ducker's invention.

The first prize was awarded to Von Christopher Unmack, of Copenhagen,—an earlier method of whose hospital had been used with excellent success by our exhibit of the Red Cross at New Orleans as the "emergency hospital" of the Exposition.

The second prize of a silver medal, with the thanks of the king, was awarded to Mr. Ducker; and it is a matter both of congratulation and pride that he is receiving orders for his hospital from foreign countries. It can scarcely fail, when generally known, of being invaluable in various departments of life, as, for instance, in constituting an almost instantaneous adjunct to all crowded institutions, as asylums, almshouses, hospitals, especially when isolated wards are desired, as in case of contagion, epidemics, etc. It makes a comfortable transportable house and complete home for invalids, or even families seeking seaside, lake-shore, or mountain resorts. Its lightness and ease of transportation would render it useful in pioneer life, thus doing away with its worst hardships and the exposure which renders it dangerous to life and health. Acquaintance and observation will innumeraibly multiply its spheres of usefulness as extended outside its own legitimate design of humanity in war; and it must be regarded as a clear-sighted glance at the needs of mankind which suggested to our honored delegate, Dr. Hoyt, its introduction to the practical persons comprising this wise and humane Conference.

Dr. HART.—I would like to ask Miss Hallowell what she considers the effect of kindergarten training on nervous children, and what is the result of such training in the public schools afterward?

Miss HALLOWELL.—Very great care is taken not to stimulate the children. It may be true that there is injudicious teaching. A system may be perfect and the exponents imperfect. But where there is an intelligent teacher, one who has the motherly instinct,

she would naturally protect the child from improper development. I think that it is a false impression that kindergarten instruction develops too rapidly or excites the nervous system. We have a phrase that it is intended for "the harmonious development of the whole child," and that would imply that there is no overstimulating. As to the second question, whether kindergarten instruction leads naturally and easily into the more advanced instruction of the schools, I believe that it does, according to the experience of those teachers who have co-operated with kindergarten teaching. We have especially the testimony of St. Louis and Philadelphia public-school teachers. They tell us that a properly trained child coming from the kindergarten is very ready to enter into the studies of the primary schools. In Boston, the child omits the first year of the primary school, and goes into the second. The little mind is naturally developed, and is ready for impressions.

Rabbi SONNESCHEIN.— May I ask Miss Huntington what is done about children who do not speak English in the Wilson School?

Miss HUNTINGTON.— They soon learn English. Our foreign speaking children are mostly German, and we have a teacher who speaks both English and German.

The Committee on Reformatories reported through its chairman, P. Caldwell, of Louisville, Ky., who read a paper on "The Reform School Problem" (page 71).

A paper was read by Col. J. C. Hite, of Lancaster, Ohio, superintendent of the Boys' Industrial School, on "Moral Elevation in Reformatories: What is required to produce it" (page 59).

A paper was read by Levi S. Fulton, superintendent of the State Industrial School, Rochester, N.Y., on "Education as a Factor in Reformation" (page 65).

The President announced that the names of Bishop Whipple and of W. Alexander Johnson had been added to the Committee on Organization.

Adjourned at 12.30.

#### VISIT TO THE REFORM SCHOOL.

*Saturday afternoon, July 17.*

By invitation of the management of the State Reform School, the Conference spent the afternoon in a visit to that institution. The Conference, together with the children, assembled in the chapel of the school; and short addresses were made by Hon. Rutherford B. Hayes, J. H. Mills, Dr. A. G. Byers, and Judge Follett. The children of the institution sang several hymns, as did also H. Thane Miller. The Catholic Orphan Asylum was also visited, on invitation of Bishop Ireland.

## SIXTH SESSION.

*Saturday night, July 17.*

The Conference met at 8 P.M., the President in the chair.

Ex-Governor George Hoadly, of Ohio, read a paper on "The Pardoning Power" (page 77).

## DISCUSSION ON PRISON REFORM.

EX-GOVERNOR MARSHALL, of Minnesota.—I regret that I am compelled to differ very widely from Gov. Hoadly. I do not look upon all the inmates of our prisons as hopelessly bad men. During the four years of my term as governor, the population of Minnesota was small and the number of prisoners proportionately small, so that my experience in the exercise of the pardoning power was necessarily limited. But I look back on none of my official acts with more satisfaction than I do upon the cases in which I either commuted the sentence of death to imprisonment or in which I reprieved prisoners. There were very few professional criminals at that time in our prisons. Most of the crimes were the result of drunkenness or of sudden passion. One prisoner, whose sentence I commuted, was afterward sent to the insane asylum at St. Peter, and soon after died. There was no reasonable doubt that the man was insane when he committed the murder, and was not responsible. In another case, where a man was condemned to imprisonment for life for killing a neighbor in a passion after drinking, I became convinced that, if the man were pardoned, he would return to his family, provide for them, and make a living for himself, and that there was no earthly danger of a recurrence of such a crime. I felt that my highest duty to society was being discharged by restoring that man to society. His subsequent history vindicated that view. In another case, where I commuted to imprisonment for life, a subsequent governor gave full pardon. In only one instance did I sign the death warrant of a man. The man had had a fair trial, and had been sentenced to be hanged. I corresponded with many persons on the subject, and all said that there ought to be no executive interference. Gov. Austin had sentenced him. I signed the warrant, and the man was executed. I have since been told that there were grave doubts about the guilt of that man, and I have had profound regret that I did not exercise my pardoning power. My opinion is that prisoners should be pardoned and allowed to return to their families and friends, if it is reasonably sure that they will lead good, orderly lives, these trials and sentences and years of imprisonment being a warning to them. I do not see why our prisons should go on accumulating hundreds and thousands of convicts. When I was governor, I exercised the pardoning power so freely as to bring severe criticism upon myself. I remember that in one year I pardoned eight out of forty convicts. If Gov. Hoadly had pardoned in the same proportion, he would have pardoned three hundred in Ohio. Doubtless, that would



not do; but, in my case, I believe it was wise. I have had no reason since to reproach myself in any degree for the exercise of the pardoning power. The system of ticket of leave I consider very good, but it seems to me that the theory that the pardoning power should only be exercised in cases where there is reason to believe that the prisoner has been wrongly sentenced is not the right theory.

Gen. BRINKERHOFF.—I most heartily approve of the sentiments that have been expressed by Gov. Hoadly; and in saying that I hope I shall not be considered harsh, or that I have no hope of the reform of criminals. I believe that the certainty of punishment is more powerful for good than its severity. It is not the severity of punishment, it is not the Draconian code, that corrects crime, but the certainty of punishment. If I were governor, it would be very rare, indeed, that I would exercise the pardoning power. I would let the law take its course, unless there was some evidence of innocence. Now, the solution of this question—and there is but one, and we have commenced it in Ohio, thanks to Gov. Hoadly—is in the line of parole; but it is not the end that we are aiming at. The only final solution of this question is in the indeterminate sentence. When a person is arrested, he should be sent to the penitentiary exactly as an insane person is sent to the asylum, to be cured there, and not to be discharged till he is cured. I heartily indorse every line of Gov. Hoadly's paper.

Mr. WINES.—This is a very puzzling question. The change in our system of jurisprudence which is proposed in the indeterminate sentence has been looked upon by many men learned in the law as an almost radical overthrow of the principles upon which our criminal law is founded. I think that the decision of the Ohio Supreme Court, to which reference has been made, has done very much to clear away the mist of doubt and uncertainty which hung around it, and invested it with difficulty in the minds of the gentlemen to whom I refer. I do not see how any one can read that decision, and not see that what we call—perhaps miscall—the indeterminate sentence is in accordance with established principles of law, which are now admitted, sustained, and upheld by our existing courts. The question, as it presents itself to us in this country, is somewhat different in form from that which it assumes in foreign countries. There are a great many interested in it here who are not aware of the extent to which the principle of "conditional liberation" has made its way in European countries. Conditional liberation is not, however, the "indeterminate sentence." By conditional liberation, we mean that a man who has received a definite sentence at the hands of the court may earn his release by his conduct in prison. The indeterminate sentence implies that the court shall not pronounce a definite sentence upon him at the time of his conviction. There are several forms under which this sentence may be pronounced. In the opinion of many, the indeterminate sentence, properly so called, means that a judge shall pronounce on a convicted prisoner imprisonment, which may be for five minutes or may be for life, according to the discretion of the parties to whom his care and custody are com-

mitted. In that extreme form, I think that few advocates are to be found for it in the United States; and I do not remember any abroad. In the modified form of a maximum sentence, but no minimum, it has many advocates; and their number is growing. The drift of public opinion seems to be in that direction. In that form, the question is not the same as in Europe. The European penologists have, for the most part, concerned themselves only with the subject of conditional liberation; and I think that in this country we are, in that particular, in advance of the whole world in our thinking on the treatment of prisoners.

But, when we come to the further question whether crime and insanity are identical, whether the prison is nothing more than a moral hospital, I do not know that I should assent to all that is implied in the remarks of my friend, Gen. Brinkerhoff. I have been much interested in reading an article that Prof. Ferri, of Italy, has written on crime and remorse, in which he tries to show that there is no true moral sense in the great majority of prisoners, and that they feel no pangs of conscience for what they have done. Madame Concepcion Arenal, of Spain, has replied to him. She says that his argument is inconclusive; for the same evidences are to be found of lack of moral sense in general society among those not convicted of crime—among merchants and statesmen and bankers, and even among priests and doctors and lawyers—that are found among prisoners, and that it is therefore a question whether this lack of moral sense, which is attributed by some to prisoners as a class, properly belongs to that class only,—that there is an element of depravity in men of all ranks of life. I do not know that a criminal disposition proves a man to be a different sort of man from his brethren, from you and me. I remember that Dr. Eliot, of St. Louis, once talked to me upon this subject, when he used this striking figure. He said that to his mind the criminal law presents the aspect of a gigantic machine with iron jaws, which open and shut at regular or irregular intervals. "There is no man," said he, "who has not been at some time within the circle of those iron jaws. You and I can remember acts committed during our youth which might have resulted in our imprisonment. The difference between one man and another often is that one has had the good fortune to get out from between the iron jaws before they came together. The other has been caught, and has become a criminal by profession." I do not see that the moral hospital theory is a satisfactory solution of the problem of dealing with crime, and I do not accept the solution which underlies it.

I want to ask Gov. Hoadly, whose address I think the ablest and most satisfactory discussion of the parole system that I have ever heard or read, one question. The decision of the Ohio Supreme Court declares that a parole is not a pardon; and for that reason it does not interfere with the prerogative of the governor, because a parole is not a pardon. I understood Gov. Hoadly to include the granting of paroles under the head of pardon, as an integral part of the governor's prerogative. I would be obliged to him if he will make his meaning as to that particular point a little more clear.

Ex-Gov. HOADLY.—If I had been arguing to a court, as in Ohio, when I defended the power of parole, I should not have treated it as if it were the exercise of the power of pardon; but, addressing a popular, not technical, audience, I am not sure that what I stated is open even to verbal criticism. I know, as a lawyer, perfectly well—I am happy to say I know it because the Supreme Court of Ohio so decided—that the power of pardon does not, in a technical and legal sense, include paroles. The paroled prisoner is, in legal contemplation, still in the penitentiary. It is the theory of the law that the limits of the penitentiary are widened so as to include the whole State. Therefore, the prisoner is not pardoned when he is paroled. I think there will be no difficulty about that. But, when you ask the other question, I apprehend that you will find it much more difficult to persuade lawyers and court that the fixing of the final term or limit of an indeterminate sentence may not be the granting of a pardon; and yet I cannot, as a lawyer, for one moment believe that it is. The question has not been raised nor passed upon by the profession or by any court. The advantage of a legal decision is that we have to debate everything, and that all the pros and cons on the question are considered by an impartial tribunal. Cardinal Newman, in his *Grammar of Assent*, in speaking of the infallibility of the pope, says that the decision of the Vatican Council commands assent because, before the Church reached its final statement,—*ex cathedra*,—centuries of discussion preceded. Now, just so with a lawyer when the court pronounces judgment, the court is gifted with practical infallibility. But, before that, a deal of debate must have preceded.

The law of Ohio to-day is that any judge of the court of common pleas may, at his discretion, sentence for a definite or indefinite term. The indefinite term involves the minimum of a definite term. The board of penitentiary managers are authorized to parole prisoners, whether serving the determinate or indeterminate sentence. But the board of managers has further power to fix the maximum, or limit the term of the indeterminate sentence. I cannot see that this is pardoning.

In all courts, it has been held, and the Supreme Court of Ohio has recently restated the doctrine,—it has been held by the Supreme Court of the United States, it is the doctrine of the common law, it has come down from the fathers,—that a pardon rehabilitates a man, cleanses him from guilt in the eye of the law. If a man be clean, he may still suffer punishment, and the suffering be a small matter; but the pardon cleanses him. Now, a man is not cleansed by having a board of managers say his term of punishment shall end in five or any other number of years. No one apprehends that, at the end of five years, an absolute discharge makes a new man of him. I must say that, if this be not the significance of the absolute discharge provided for in the law allowing indeterminate sentences, then it is unconstitutional. Every prisoner who serves out his time with credit recovers his civil status as a citizen. Out of five or six hundred prisoners discharged from the Ohio penitentiary in the

course of the year, more than four hundred will receive restoration papers. One of the arduous duties of the governor's office is the everlasting signing of restoration papers. Every prisoner who comes out with a clean sheet, or with his demerits washed out, is absolutely entitled by law to the restoration of his privileges as a citizen. This is not a pardon nor commutation. The question is whether the termination by the board of an indeterminate sentence is a pardon. If it be such, then it is unconstitutional, because it makes him a new, clean man,—cleansed from the guilt,—as well as remits the crime. If it only remits the punishment, then it is not a pardon. But the governor of Ohio has not only the power of pardon, but the power of commutation; and it may be objected that the fixing of the term may be the exercise of the commuting power. I do not see this, unless you assume that the indeterminate sentence is a life sentence. If that is so, then clearly enough the remittal of the penalty is the exercise of the commuting power, and is unconstitutional. But, if it is only the possibility of a life detention, I fail to see where it comes into conflict with the power of commutation.

Dr. BYERS.—Providing the maximum is fixed, then that difficulty would be removed.

Gov. HOADLY.—No: they would say then, That is commutation. It is because the term is indefinite that you can steer between Scylla and Charybdis.

Mr. WINES.—You would call that, then, a very vital point?

Gov. HOADLY.—Yes, very vital.

Rabbi SONNESCHEIN.—The pardoning power, as I look at it, means the power to forgive, and nothing else. I make a broad and deep distinction between forgiving a crime and releasing a criminal from the punishment of his act. If that crime be a petty one, the pardoning act is not required at all. If a severe crime was committed, intelligently and wilfully, let the perpetrator suffer for it. But, if he has committed a crime of such a bloody character, for which either imprisonment for life or the taking away of life is the sole legal penalty, then let that power be exercised which, according to the relics of barbaric ages, is given to the crowned head that receives all its prerogatives by the grace of God, or let it be done in our American way, where the governor is the incarnation of the people's power, and where the voice of the people is honored as the voice of God. If the people of Wisconsin or Missouri have put a citizen at the head of their State who deservedly represents the incarnated will of the people of an enlightened State, then it would be utterly wrong to hinder him from meting out divine mercy. If a farmer or wine-grower in California wishes to introduce any new kind of horticultural growth, and goes intelligently about it, he will not experiment for years and years as to how to select and nurse his plants. He will go to Hungary or France or Spain,—to those countries where wine-growing is pre-eminent,—and will try to learn what is best fitted to his soil. If this Conference wants to know the effects of the pardoning power, go to Europe. Look at Hungary, for example. How does the King of Hungary act? I have had

opportunities to look into these things; and I know it for a fact that, with all the power of the Emperor of Austria and the King of Hungary, he would not dare to give a pardon or commute a sentence for life without submitting the facts to the scrutinizing eyes of three of the oldest supreme judges of the capital of his empire. He is bound by ages of tradition to do this. England and Hungary are the only monarchies in which the crown's pardoning powers are limited in this way. Suppose a committee of ex-President Hayes and two others chosen by this Conference should be appointed to communicate with the governments of those countries on the exercise of the pardoning power, and as to how they limit that prerogative; and perhaps, in that way, the divine right of kings, together with the divine right of the people, may be best implanted in the free soil of America.

Dr. BYERS.—I would like to call the attention of the Conference to a feature of the pardoning power from an inside view of its influence. I am somewhat familiar with the tribulations that accompany the exercise of this power in the governor's office, growing out of the importunity of relatives and friends. On one occasion, a governor told me to tell a certain woman that, if she did not stop coming to him, he would extend the sentence under which her daughter was imprisoned. I went to the prison, and told the daughter that she must not let her mother go to the governor any more; for "he declares to me that, if she appears at his office again, he will keep you here as long as you live." As I left the prison, I met the old lady coming in, with the pardon in her hand! Her importunity had carried the day. Having served under quite a number of governors and quite a number of wardens, I am prepared to say, from my own experience, that the existence of the pardoning power is every way hurtful to the discipline of a prison. I would not have the power exist. Its existence is an encouragement to crime, and disturbs the discipline in any prison. You ask, What shall we do with the innocent man found to be so after his conviction? If he was improperly convicted, he does not need a pardon: it merely requires a reversal of judgment in his case. He is an innocent man, and was convicted illegally and improperly, and ought not to be stigmatized with a pardon. The unrest in a prison is unceasing, from January to December, from morning till night. The pleas that the chaplain is compelled to hear from these men and their wives and their mothers and from influential parties outside are incessant. The worst prisoner can command any amount of outside influence. As to the moral hospital to which Mr. Wines makes objection, that will hold as against our present system of administering prisons in Ohio. I was chaplain for six years, and served under four wardens. If I were sick and taken to a hospital, and had to remain any length of time, and some one physician had acquired a knowledge of my ailment and condition, I should dislike very much if, at the behest of some one outside of the hospital, that physician were taken away, and another sent and placed in charge of my case. The changes in the administration of our prisons prevent the experience necessary to

make the parole system successful. Give us good, experienced prison officials, with a safe tenure of office, forever beyond the reach of partisan political changes, and we may make the parole and the indeterminate sentence a solution for many of the difficulties that now exist in the way of a safe and proper exercise of the pardoning power, if that power shall continue to exist, and in the general treatment of criminals.

Mr. BROOKS, of Colorado.—I want to say Amen to what Dr. Byers has said. I find great difficulty in performing the work of a chaplain in the penitentiary of Colorado, from the disturbances which the desire for a pardon causes in the minds of the great majority of prisoners. Our governor tells me that he has over seventy-five applications for pardon among three hundred men. Dr. Byers has struck the note that has given me some help.

Adjourned at 10.15 P.M.

#### SEVENTH SESSION.

*Sunday night, July 18.*

The Conference met at the Pilgrim Church, the President in the chair. Prayer was offered by Rev. Thane Miller. The subject for the evening was Prison Reform. An address on "The International Prison Congress at Rome, Italy," was given by Rev. J. L. Milligan (page 102). Rev. W. F. M. Round also spoke on the same subject as follows:—

Mr. ROUND.—I was very much struck from the first day that we arrived in Rome and went into the old palace that Mr. Milligan has described to find the very warm relation that existed between Italy and America in the matter of prison reform. If Italy made the initial movement, its culmination was reached in our American Dr. Wines; and that International Congress was the outcome of his magnificent labor. His name was never spoken in that Congress without expressions of profoundest regard. I was struck, moreover, by the splendid hospitality given to every new thought, however it might differ from the prevailing sentiment of the Congress. I was struck as never before with the brotherhood of humanity that transcends all national ties. I was proud as an American that the three typical systems of prison reform were spoken of by American names, and that we heard of the "Elmira" system, the "Pennsylvania" system, and the "Auburn" system. I was pleased to see that the reformatory idea was the prevalent one. If the countries of Europe have been slow to adopt the indeterminate sentence, I feel that it is safe to believe that, within the next score of years, it will be adopted in every country in Europe. Penology in the Congress was raised to the dignity of a social science, and prison keeping to a new profession, calling for the best thought and the best men.



A paper on "Prison Reform" was read by Gen. R. Brinkerhoff (page 90).

Miss Clara Barton made an address, of which the following is an abstract:—

MISS BARTON.—I am asked to make some remarks upon the subject of Prison Reform, in view of which it is to be regretted that the subject has never received from me the attention indispensable to a profitable presentation before this conference of thoughtful and experienced men and women. Also, the call is sudden, unexpected, and leaves me to speak without preparation; but let me hope that what your judgment cannot approve your charity will cover.

The subject appears to open itself to me with two main questions. The one, to what class of the community or to what grade of transgressions, whether crime or vice, prison reform is supposed to be applicable. If to those denominated the "criminal classes," coming down through the generations with inherited crime, like the taint of physical disease inborn in the blood, or a strong tendency, due to some accidental, pre-natal cause, then the task of the prison reformer is indeed hard; and he may well feel that the labor of those doomed to draw water in a sieve has fallen to his lot.

The other question seems to be, What is meant by "prison reform"? To what degree shall it attain? Is it palliation or cure?

I well remember the one question which usually confronted me from visitors to Sherborn,—when I was at the head of the Reformatory for Women there,—“How is it,—do you *really reform* any one here?” My reply was in substance this: “That depends upon what you consider reform to consist in. If you mean to ask if we take women here, badly born, worse raised, with perhaps inherited vices, habitual vagrants, with the grog-shop and the brothel for their teachers, who never lived a decent day nor knew a decent night, filthy inside and out, and, by a residence of a few months here, we are enabled to send them out to you, not only good, well-behaved, industrious, cleanly, sober, orderly, honest, respectable members of society, something they never were before, but *infallible*, as well as proof against all the temptations and vices which you of the free community on the outside may throw in their paths, so they shall never fall again,—then, No, we reform no one, and our prison is a failure. But, if reform may mean the habits which must inevitably grow up in the minds, characters, and tastes of these women during a term of two years of sober, industrious, and instructed life, in which they shall see only cleanliness and order; where the work-room shall replace the street; the quiet cell, the school-room; and the chapel shall take the place of the grog-shop and the brothel; kindly spoken advice, prayer, praise, and song, the place of oaths and vulgarity; and the formation of a resolution, at least, to *try* to lead a better life,—if all this may be accounted in the direction of reform, then, *Yes*, a thousand times yes: we reform *all* who come within our walls.”

The prison in itself, so far as it goes, is well. The danger lies be-

yond,—in the temptations, the lures, the traps, of the community into which the poor, weak creature is plunged in her first hour of regained liberty. I never saw one of these women go out with her little bundle of freedom suit, and watched the eager, timid, and half-frightened expression of her face, and felt the child-like, clinging grasp of her hand upon mine, as the trembling "Good-by, don't forget me," fell from her lips, that a great prayer did not rise up in my heart: "O God, strengthen her weakness. Guard, guide, and protect her from the temptations and the snares leading her down to death." I recall an official visit from some twenty members of the legislature at Boston, for the purpose of overlooking the prison, seeing what it might need and how it could best be officially served. Accordingly, my opinion, as superintendent, was asked,—if the prison were what it should be in its appointments, if it were large enough or too large, etc., and, in a general way, what I would recommend to them to do. I replied: "This prison is all very well, a model prison, and certainly as large as it ought to be for the size of the State; and it is very probable there is not much that you can directly do for it at present, as an institution. But, gentlemen, the institution from which you come has the making of the laws by which this institution exists. Any time when you there will find a way to make it impossible for the people of this State to get intoxicating liquors upon which to get drunk, I will guarantee that in six months the State of Massachusetts may rent Sherborn prison for a shoe manufactory." True, vice will exist without drunkenness, but to no such extent as to require miles of prison galleries for the women of Massachusetts. . . . Next to drunkenness follows the sin-bound cortège of primal and secondary causes for vice and crime, which make necessary the various methods of treatment which have been here so ably discussed, and in which I can only concur or perhaps express suggestively some preferences which may have presented themselves to me.

In regard to indeterminate sentences, I may not be sufficiently clear upon the technical points; but, in a general way, I would say I am in favor of an unfixed term of imprisonment when the sentence is given. A fixed time of release gives an independence to the prisoner, beyond the power of his keepers, and stands directly in the way of reform.

If it were possible, I would advocate entire separation, one prisoner from another, and from all others of their kind, leaving their companionship with their keepers, guardians, instructors, and attendants. It is quite possible for one evil-minded prisoner endowed with a natural power of leadership (and their name is legion) to undo in one-half hour of general recreation all that the entire prison staff have been able to do in six months, in the way of moral reformation. This course may prove to be neither wise nor possible; but the prison reformer, in his hours of discouragement, will often wish it were.

I would earnestly advocate, in all prisons, in police stations, in houses of detention,—in short, everywhere,—the placing of arrested women, and of women prisoners, in charge of women only, and men

in charge of men. It is just and right for every reason of virtue and decency.

I would, for considerations of humanity, have the most careful and scientific investigation made in all prisons for any possible tendencies to insanity. The wilful subjection to prison rules and prison penalties of those from whose benighted minds the light of reason and the power of self-control have been withdrawn is cruelty inexcusable. The welfare of the prisoner and the prison alike demand their separation. Both suffer from remaining together.

I beg also to suggest the lessening, so far as possible, of the stimulating qualities of the food customarily provided in prisons,—more of grains, vegetables, and fruits, and less of meat, grease, and coffee. The beneficial results of this, I am confident, would be seen in the better temper, more tractable nature, lessened irritability, and happier frame of mind of convicts in general. I would have the food plentiful, but unstimulating, cooling, wholesome. The records of the punishments in prisons could not fail in time to demonstrate the propriety of this course. I fully realize the difficulties to be encountered, and the volcanic ground upon which any warden or superintendent would step, the moment any change in this direction were undertaken; but the question always remains, "Are the convicts of a prison to make up their own 'bill of fare,' and insist upon it to the point of rebellion?"

I am neither a believer in nor an advocate of capital punishment, and have always been opposed to the pardoning power, on the ground that it made capital punishment a necessity for the safety of communities. If a criminal could be sentenced to imprisonment for life, and remain so, the world would be safe from him; but no sooner is he sentenced than the officious or sentimental or maudlin or designing portions of society commence steps for his pardon, and at length such enginery is brought to bear that it is worth an official life to refuse. And, in due time, he is pretty sure to be set at liberty, in defiance of the law which found him guilty, to prey anew upon his fellow-men, thus making it almost, if not quite, a necessity to kill the criminal, in order to prevent him from killing others.

But, says one, if it were found that a prisoner has been wrongfully convicted and is unjustly held, would you not have *this* person pardoned? Most certainly *not*. Pardon implies crime. If the prisoner is not guilty, I would have him or her publicly vindicated and set at liberty, and not subjected to the additional degradation and wrong of receiving a "pardon" for a fault never committed.

There remains but a word more, and that concerning the relations and conduct to be maintained between the inmates of a prison and those in charge of them. I would have not only a uniform kindness (with firmness of course), but a uniform politeness as well, on the part of every attendant, toward all with whom he or she came in contact. Like begets like. Polite treatment increases self-respect. This has been lost, and needs to be encouraged and restored so far as practicable.

Make punishment as rare as possible, but *sure*, if deserved; and

in all instances as light as the case will admit of. I regard undue severity of punishment as far more harmful than no correction whatever. And nothing could stand more prominently and persistently in the way of all hope of reform, which must ever be the offspring of the better nature awakened to new life by gratitude, love, and conscience.

Ex-President Hayes made the closing address in a few words. He said:—

We have had a capital meeting. For almost twenty years, I have attended the meetings of the National Prison Association; and, if we stop now, this will be one of the best meetings that I ever attended.

Adjourned at 10.30 P.M.

#### EIGHTH SESSION.

*Monday morning, July 19.*

The Conference met at 9 A.M., the President in the chair. Prayer was offered by Bishop Ireland.

Reports from States were continued.

The report from Iowa was read by Dr. Jennie McCowen (page 313).

The report from Rhode Island was made by Mrs. J. K. Barney, superintendent of Prison, Jail, Police, and Almshouse Work of the National Women's Christian Temperance Union.

Mrs. BARNEY.—The only legislation during the past year bearing upon our various institutions has been in the way of appropriations for adding to the facilities for ventilation and drainage. There have been various changes in administration, caused by resignation or death. The most important of these is the death of Dr. John Sawyer, of the Butler Asylum for the Insane. There has been no change in the Board of Charities. This board is gaining in the favor of the people. Our five jails, with one exception, are in excellent condition. Our new building for the care of the incurable insane is now occupied, also a building for the care of the children of the State. There is now no child over three years of age in any almshouse. This we consider a decided improvement. We have been working up to this condition for a great while, and there has been much agitation of the subject. This home for the children of the State is entirely removed from our reform school for boys and girls. Our police matron is doing excellent work. We find her a great help to the Prisoners' Aid Association. She has been able to save many girls arrested for the first time. Our charitable institutions care for the out-door poor, and our Women's City Missionary Society has done good work. We feel that we have laid our hand on the prolific source of crime, and hence-

forth the liquor traffic is outlawed in Rhode Island. We consider that that is the greatest advance that has been made for many years. The last Fourth of July we did not have a single arrest, against thirty-five the year before. All of our institutions and almshouses are visited monthly by our Women's Christian Temperance Union. I am sure that the work in the State has been as well carried on as in years heretofore.

The report from Minnesota, by Rev. H. H. Hart, was read by Rev. M. McG. Dana, D.D. (page 323).

A report from the Erring Women's Home of Chicago was given by the superintendent, Mrs. Helen M. Woods, of which the following is an abstract :—

Mrs. WOODS.—In the Erring Women's Refuges, we try to reach and reform all classes that come to us. The cases of young girls who have been betrayed by promise of marriage, and have fled from home to avoid exposure and disgrace, and but for the aid we give would in sheer desperation commit suicide or go down to the lowest depths of sin, appeal to us most strongly, and are, perhaps, the most hopeful cases we have. Many have been restored to their friends,—ashamed and sorry, it may be, but redeemed, and anxious to live down the past. To St. Petersburg, Russia, Chili, South America, to Texas, New York, to all parts of the country, we have sent girls to their homes; and, almost without exception, we hear good reports of them. If a young girl without home and friends becomes a mother, we encourage her to keep her child; for the mother's love is a strong and wonderful incentive to industrious habits and right ways of living. We also take young girls who are wild and giddy, brought by parents or friends or who come voluntarily, and, lastly, those who are sent by the courts. Our aim is to teach them industrious habits, to build up a sense of self-respect, to overcome the feeling that they are outcasts. We have a school in the morning for the youngest girls, in the evening for all the family; for our institution is conducted on the family plan. We teach sewing, dressmaking, embroidery, housework, and nursing. The average age of those who come to us is under twenty. Of those who come under our care, three out of five, or surely one-half, are reclaimed. We try to have them stay one, two, four years, the longer the better, in many cases; and we know that homes like ours should be established in every city in our land. A home should not be too large. It is doubtful if any home should contain more than seventy-five or one hundred inmates. They should not be treated as if contamination was in their touch, but with kindness and sympathy. Evil and indolent habits can be overcome by persevering gentleness and firmness. The home should be to them what their natural home ought to have been, and the matron should have a mother's care over those committed to her charge. In our institution, we have received, for the year ending June 30, sixty-eight girls. Twenty-two are American, and forty-six of foreign par-

entage. During the same time, sixty-two girls have left the home,—thirty-nine returned to friends, and nine self-supporting.

By permission, Mrs. Virginia T. Smith spoke as follows with reference to kindergartens, as there was no time allowed for the discussion of that subject on Saturday:—

Mrs. SMITH.—For children of garret and cellar homes in the slums of cities, who, although in danger of falling into vice, will naturally remain in their homes, the kindergarten is the means of grace; and I would interrupt the proceedings for a moment to encourage those present whose duty it may be to establish this work in your own cities, by giving our personal experience in this regard. In the city of Hartford, Conn., seven years ago, we became convinced of the necessity of the kindergarten. We fitted up a back room of the chapel belonging to the City Mission Society, located in the most vicious quarter of our city, engaged a teacher, and endeavored to begin our school. There was no response to our strong convictions with regard to the importance of the work; and, with the exception of two or three friends, who spoke encouragingly, we were alone in the enterprise. We were also discouraged by the report of the teacher that she could not induce the mothers to permit the children to come in. She sat alone in her prettily appointed school-room, listening to the ticking of the clock and the remote bedlam of the street; and she pathetically inquired of me if she should give it up. My answer was a daily visit to that locality and a daily descent upon belated and slumbering households, who, by reason of drunken debauches, sleep their mornings into noon.

We washed and dressed the little children of women who (from the memory of kindness shown them in the past and the possibility of favors needed in the future) could not refuse any such request, and then we led the little ones away to school. Day after day, we renewed our efforts; and group after group was brought in, until our school-room was not only full, but every child who knew the school was delighted to come without being sent for. At first, the rub-a-dub-dub of a military company or a hand-organ outside, with the monkey grimacing near the open door, were distractions sufficient to empty the school-room instantaneously; but, by and by, they became so happy and interested in their work that even these pronounced attractions had no power over them.

During four years of single-handed effort, public sentiment grew to the place where it looked in upon our work with gracious and admiring courtesy, and (with our glad assent) aided us in placing back of it a board of management known as the Hartford Free Kindergarten Association. Then we became a power; when last winter we appealed earnestly and hopefully, and yet not without a feeling of perturbation, to our legislature, asking it to establish a law making the kindergarten permissive in all the public schools of Connecticut, we were regarded with favor, and our bill passed both House and Senate without a dissenting voice. And to-day that law



is enrolled on the statute books, and we are preparing in Hartford to open one or more schools in September. Instead of one local organization, giving as a charity to a few the benediction of this nurture, the kindergarten is insured to the children henceforth as their right throughout the State.

The assistance which Mrs. Cooper, of San Francisco, has been able to render through the knowledge which the kindergarten gave her concerning the families in a fire-swept portion of that city, deserves reporting to this Conference, as an illustration of the unthought-of good results of kindergarten work. A San Francisco correspondent thus describes it: "The fire was one of exceptional devastation. It was a densely populated district. Almost every house covered several families. In one instance, eleven families occupied a large dwelling. The inflammable nature of the buildings made it impossible to save anything, the occupants barely escaping with their lives. Forty-nine dwellings were burned; and eighty-three families, including between five and six hundred persons, were rendered homeless, with absolutely nothing save scant clothing they had thrown on in the confusion of the moment. It had been a struggle with them for bare subsistence. The kindergarten had revealed these facts long before the fire, as children from over forty of these families belong to the Stanford Kindergarten; and frequent visitation had made our faithful teachers familiar with many other families who lived in the same dwellings. In this way, the kindergarten was in a condition to render wise and intelligent aid to the sufferers. There was small chance for imposture. Our faithful, self-sacrificing teachers, Misses Wheaton and Herrick, with their kind and efficient assistants, Misses Cox, Zimmerman, Hill, and Hart, at once set themselves at work. The doors of our large kindergarten were thrown open, and the rooms were filled with the homeless families. The building, which is 125 x 40 feet, seemed especially adapted to this crisis. An appeal through the press for aid brought immediate and abundant response, and the work of relief began."

The Committee on Preventive Work among Children reported through its chairman, Mrs. Virginia T. Smith (page 124).

A paper by Mrs. Anne B. Richardson, of Lowell, Mass., on "Massachusetts Institutions: Supplementary Work in the Care of Dependent and Delinquent Children," was read by the Secretary (page 131).

A paper by Mrs. Julia H. Goodhart, of Indiana, upon the County Homes of Indiana, was read by the Secretary, of which the following is an abstract:—

#### COUNTY HOMES FOR CHILDREN IN INDIANA.

The first home for pauper children in this State was organized in 1879 at Rushville, Rush County. The commissioners gave to Miss Jennie Huddleson, at her earnest request, all the children in the county asylum. She agreed for twenty-five cents per day, the esti-

mated cost to the county, to feed, clothe, and send to the public school all who were of proper age. The following year, the commissioners of Henry County gave their children to Miss Fussell, locating the home at Spiceland. The success of these homes was beyond expectation, and the change wrought in morals and in manners was surprising. Convinced that county homes were the best provision that could be made for homeless children, a number of prominent citizens of Rush, Henry, and Marion Counties united in urging the legislature to pass a bill authorizing all county commissioners to establish such homes. The bill was prepared and presented by Mr. George Merritt, and is entitled "An Act to provide more effectually for the care, support, and education of pauper children, repealing all laws in conflict therewith, and declaring an emergency." Under this act, the board of commissioners of each county in the State having pauper children of sound mind, and between the ages of two and sixteen years, are authorized and directed to appoint as matron a woman of good moral character, sound judgment, and suitable age, having experience in the care and training of children, and to place in her care all children that may be at that time, or who may be after that time, received into such county asylum.

"It shall be the duty of the matron to provide the children committed to her care with sufficient food and clothing, and to give them proper home training and education. She must send to the public school all children while under her care that are of the proper age to be admitted, and at proper times, when not in school nor engaged in study, to employ them in some active labor suitable to their age and strength, to the end that they may become useful, industrious, and self-supporting citizens. The matron is to receive not less than twenty-five nor more than thirty cents per day for each child committed to her care. A good house, grounds for garden and a cow, may be provided by the commissioners. If the number of such children in the county exceeds twenty, and if, in the judgment of the board of commissioners, it should be thought to be to the advantage of such children, other homes may be established. With the consent of the commissioners, permanent homes may be procured within the county. A person proposing to take a child must be known to be of good moral character, and one who is able to provide for it. He must enter into an agreement to do to and for the child until of legal age all that is required of the matron. On failure, the child reverts to the home. A visitors' committee, to serve without compensation, may be appointed. It is their duty to visit the home often, and report to the commissioners any failure or neglect on the part of the matron. School books, medical attention, medicines, and, in cases of death, burial, are provided by the county."

Such in substance is the law as passed in 1881.

Under its provisions, thirteen homes for children taken from county asylums are in successful operation. Organized on the same general plan, they differ only as homes differ; the matrons, as mothers, carrying out their own ideas of home government and home instruction. A thorough knowledge of housework will be thought by some to be

an indispensable part of every girl's education, and especial attention will be given to washing and ironing and to cooking. In such cases, it is necessary to employ a seamstress to do the most of the sewing. Sometimes, a cook is hired, and the sewing is done in the home. All expenses, except such as are provided for by law, are borne by the matron.

With perhaps one exception, the grounds and buildings occupied as homes are owned by their respective counties. Rush County has purchased ground, and purposes building this year. There are twenty-eight children in this home. They attend public school, and have a kindergarten for the little ones. Henry County has seven acres of ground, a portion of which is cultivated by the boys, under the supervision of the matron. The dwelling is of brick, plain and substantial. The children attend public school, and have a kindergarten. There are thirty-two children here. Franklin County Home was organized in 1882, with eleven inmates. The present number is twenty-nine, eighteen of whom go to public school,—no kindergarten. Hamilton County has thirty-two children; Gibson County, fifteen. All attend public school. Montgomery County has twenty children. The Home is very much crowded, no room for kindergarten. Children who are old enough go to public school. Decatur County has forty-four children. The older ones attend the public school. There is a kindergarten for younger children. This Home is beautifully situated. There are five acres of ground under cultivation. Fruit is abundant. Delaware County Home was organized in 1883. It has ten acres of ground, plenty of fruit, and a good garden. Schools are not accessible on account of distance, and private teachers are employed. There are twenty-two children in the Home. Vanderburg County Home, at Evansville, was formerly supported by donations from city and county. Under the new law, it became a county home. The house is large and convenient, with good grounds just outside the city limits. This Home has two matrons and seventy-five children. All of suitable age attend public schools.

The Northern Indiana Orphans' Home receives the children from St. Joseph County. The children from Marion County are now admitted to the Indianapolis Orphan Asylum, the commissioners paying twenty-five cents per day for each child sent by them. The city provides competent teachers. The children of the Homes regularly attend Sunday-school and church, and are distributed among the various denominations. Where there are two or more members of the same family, they are always sent together. There is no peculiarity of dress to stigmatize or distinguish them from other children. They are cleanly in person and polite in manner.

As they came from the poorhouses, they presented a most forlorn appearance,—dirty and neglected and often suffering from disease. When children are sick or suffering from infectious diseases, they are not permitted to come in contact with the others, but are kept in the nursery, where they receive care and attention. The great lack seems to be some profitable employment for the boys. It is hoped that this problem may soon be satisfactorily solved. Regular visits

to the Homes are made by the county commissioners, and also by the grand jury. Reports from nine Homes show that since 1881 seven hundred and seventy-one children have been cared for,—an average of eighty-six to each Home.

Miss Emily Huntington, of New York, by request, spoke upon kitchen gardens. The following is an abstract of her remarks :—

Miss HUNTINGTON.—The children in these gardens are taught to wash dishes, sweep, dust, make beds, etc. They are taught to do everything thoroughly. I say to them when they are sweeping: "If you are going to leave any dust anywhere, leave it right in the middle of the room, where I can see it, not in the corners. Never sweep round the corners. Any little girl that shall sweep for a week and not leave dust in the corners shall have a ribbon on her broom." There is a verse that says, Blessed is he that considereth the poor; but that does not mean alone to give them something to eat and drink, but it is to consider what is for their best good, and, with children, that means to consider their play as well as their work. Every young thing loves to play. But the children of poor people are often put to work by the time they are twelve. They drop their child-life there. They have not had much real play before then, neither have they learned well how to work. We combine pleasure therefore with our instruction. We cannot teach them in a real dining-room with real dishes, because we wish to teach as many as possible. So we use toy dishes. When they open the little boxes, they cry, "Oh, dishes!" with a delight that they would not express over real dishes. They have washed and wiped dishes since they could hold a towel; but they have never known how to do it well, and they have never had any fun in doing it. So I do not say, "Now, we are going to wash dishes,"—that would have no interest for them. I say: "We are going to play with these. Let us first make a procession of them. What comes first at a picnic?" And they cry, "The band." "Well," I say, "let us make a band out of the tumblers." Then, in our procession, we arrange the pitchers next, then the spoons, and so on, in the order in which they should be washed. And so the procession passes through the dish-pan; and they have enjoyed their lesson, and have learned at the same time how to wash dishes. Three dollars will buy enough dishes for a class of twenty-four children, and they will last for ten years. Our school was originally intended for little children; but now we have classes of older girls, who are glad to learn how to do these things. The training also teaches them to speak quietly and to walk softly; in short, how to wait on a table properly. They march to music, whenever possible; and that helps to teach them order. In teaching them to wait on the door, we play with them in the same way, teaching them how to receive a caller, how to receive and deliver a message, etc. People ask if we do this with the idea of making all these children servants. But, if we did, how could we insure that they should be servants in this free country? You can never

tell whether they will or will not, but it at least teaches them how to take care of their own homes. But many of those that we have trained have become second girls or table waiters, and have given excellent satisfaction. Kitchen gardening is carried on in Cincinnati, and one is to be started in Chicago. The starting is expensive; but, after the utensils are bought, they serve for a long time. It is especially important that proper brooms should be used. The small brooms will make any child round-shouldered. The kind we use are light, and are suitable for children from five years of age upward. Kitchen-garden training is the most beautiful work for young ladies to engage in. Four or five friends can work together at it, and those who want to do charity work can find no better employment than helping in the training of these children. We find in New York that the children so grow into the hearts of the young ladies who assist us that the children attempt to copy them in all things. It is sometimes perfectly amusing to see how the little ones try to copy the manners of these ladies. Through the young ladies, we also secure the help of young gentlemen. Seeing their sisters' interest, they come and ask for work for themselves, and are very helpful. There is one thing more. In teaching everything, we make use of songs that give all the directions necessary. In learning these songs, which they delight in singing, and which embody the rules for sweeping rooms, laying tables, etc., they do not dream, poor little souls, that you are humbugging them into learning how to do well the drudgeries of life.

A paper was read by Hon. William P. Letchworth on "The Children of the State" (page 138).

#### DISCUSSION ON PREVENTIVE WORK.

Miss JESSIE A. SCHLEY, manager of the Young Girl's Home, St. Paul, said that it seemed to her very strange that she had heard nothing so far in the papers with reference to working girls, and how to preserve them from becoming bad. They come from the country in large numbers, seeking work, and lodge in low boarding-houses, where they are exposed to every temptation. They have no pleasant surroundings; and yet they are just at the age when the daughters of the members of this Conference are surrounded with all the pleasantest things in life, and shielded in every way to guard their virtue. These girls must work from seven in the morning till six in the evening, when they must return to their desolate, warm, crowded boarding-houses. They have no privileges of a parlor, and no place where they can receive their young friends. Hence they flirt with Tom, Dick, and Harry on the street. We have started in St. Paul a Young Girl's Home for the purpose of reaching these girls. We take girls from fourteen to thirty, who are not married. We have two parlors for them and a reading-room. They pay us \$2.50 a week. We find the plan is practical, and are overcrowded. We have occasionally small parties, when they may invite their friends and stay up

till twelve o'clock. We have no difficulty with young men who come. They are common laboring men, frequently day-laborers; but they act like perfect gentlemen. Except on the occasions referred to, they leave at ten o'clock. We also allow them to take their young friends to places of amusement, provided we know where they are going and the hour at which they return. We have forty-four with us to-day; and, in the last year, we have thus given shelter to four hundred and seventy-five young girls of the working class. There is no special religious influence exerted over them, but it is a Catholic institution. We have Catholic prayers; but, sometimes, half the girls are not Catholic, and they are free to say their own prayers, but we do not like young girls to be free to grow up irreligious. We feel that such homes should be started in every large city.

MR. WRIGHT.—How were the buildings provided?

MISS SCHLEY.—The citizens of St. Paul helped about that. Our property is worth \$15,000. We have no salaries to pay; otherwise, I doubt if we could meet all our expenses.

MR. BARBOUR.—Michigan is too large a State to have her children taken care of in county homes. It may do for smaller States, where there are only a few counties, and where there can be very careful supervision of the children; but a large State must have a State institution, and it must have machinery throughout the State by which there shall be a uniform method for disposing of and taking care of them. I recognize that Indiana is also quite a large State, and that the county system has been undertaken there; but I fear it will be difficult to plant it in every county or in two or three counties combined, as their system seems to contemplate. We have in Michigan a State institution, where all dependent and neglected children, when they cannot be disposed of directly, are sent from the various counties by the superintendents of the poor and the county agent, who is the agent of the State Board of Corrections and Charities. By the county agent and by the agent of the school, these children are afterwards placed in homes found for them. So we have the combination of the county system and of the State system. Our statistics show such a large number of children thus provided for that I fear it would trouble those who uphold the county system to show anything like it. Then we have a general supervision by both the county agent and the agent of the institution, that cannot be so well provided for by the simple county system. Unless a great deal of care is taken, the county home will degenerate into a kind of poorhouse. We have no children in the poorhouses of the State of Michigan. The only exception is that of feeble-minded children: others are taken out by the time they are three years old. We hope at the next session of the legislature to secure the establishment of an institution for the feeble-minded, so that there shall be no excuse for any child of any description being in the county poorhouse. There are probably now a hundred. When we go a step higher, and come to boys and girls a little too old to go to the State public school, who have committed some violation of law or are vagrants, they are sent to the reform school for boys or girls, and from there, after



going through the necessary discipline, eventually placed in families by the county agents. In this way there is a connection from the smallest child up through the whole system. All our charities are connected in this way, from the people to the institutions, and from the institutions back to the people; and, if anywhere there is a link wanting, a great part of the work is left undone. If we can take care of the children all the way up, we shall keep our prisons empty; and, just in proportion as we do not, we shall have our prisons full.

The Business Committee made the following partial report:—

Your Business Committee beg leave at this time to submit a partial report on the preamble and resolution presented by Gen. Bane, which is as follows:—

Whereas there are no well-digested views agreed upon by any of the law-making bodies of the country, looking toward the cure of the threatening troubles arising out of the conflict between industrial labor and capital and its corporate powers, or toward a cure of the destructive spirit of communism, both indigenous and imported, or toward curing the depravity, pauperism, and crime growing out of the abuse of alcoholic liquors; and

Whereas these questions are presenting to the law-makers the most difficult and perplexing legislative problems ever presented to man; and

Whereas these questions, with all others of a like nature, come within the broad jurisdiction of this National Board of Charities and Correction,—

*Resolved*, That it is the sense of this National Conference that its well-matured and deliberate views upon these and kindred vital questions be presented, in the most practical and effective manner, to the law-making bodies of our country, with the important end in view that these doctrines may be put into the statutes of the country, and undergo practical trial before the courts of law and judgment of the people.

This preamble and resolution say truly that “these questions are presenting to the law-maker the most difficult and perplexing problems ever presented to man”; and we would add that they have for years taxed the energies of the best thinkers all over the civilized world, who have earnestly tried to discover a satisfactory solution, but without success. It is a mistake that this National Conference has “well-matured views upon these and kindred vital questions.”

We copy part of the report of the Business Committee submitted to and adopted by the Twelfth Conference, which we believe to be the settled policy governing our organization, which is as follows:—

“It has not been the practice of this National Conference to formulate ideas into platforms; but it has taken such broad ground that all, of whatever sect, creed, or party, could freely unite in an interchange of thought and expression of opinion. Our aim has been and is to unite the social, moral, religious, and political elements of society into one organization, to promote the uplifting of humanity. We grant the widest range of individual opinion, and invite the widest discussion of the various questions that come before our meetings. To promote and secure harmony in our widely extended organization, we set no metes or bounds to the fullest discussion of any subject.”

Your Committee ask to be discharged from the further consideration of the preamble and resolution.

Bishop C. F. Robertson, of the Episcopal Church, and Rabbi S. H. Sonneschein, both of St. Louis, were brothers in the work of charity. The Hebrew and the Christian worked in harmony together to do good to their fellow-men. Bishop Robertson, whom we all loved, is gone. Rabbi Sonneschein is with us here to-day, and we recommend the passage of the following resolution :—

*Resolved*, That it is the earnest wish of the members of this Conference that Rabbi Sonneschein address us on the life and character of Bishop Robertson, to the end that the same may be printed in our Proceedings as a tribute of respect to his memory.

The report of the Business Committee was adopted.

#### DISCUSSION CONTINUED.

Mrs. COLBY, of Nebraska, said that she hoped the time would never come when children should be boarded out to the exclusion of the voluntary system. She had seen the advantage to the home as well as to the child of welcoming them to the heart as well as to the home. In her own town, out of sixty children brought there by the Children's Aid Society last summer, all of the smaller ones were taken as members of the family. One lady who went to see the children, not expecting to adopt any, picked up a tired little one,—one of the youngest there,—and it went to sleep in her arms; and, after that, she could not give it up, and that child is now the joy of her home. Those who take children from institutions should take them as young as possible. It is the little ones that most easily find their way to hearts. Many of the older children have to be returned. Take them out of the institutions when young, hold them with a firm hand at first, and keep pernicious literature out of their hands.

Mr. BULL.—There are three principles which govern us who advocate the private home plan of the Children's Aid Society. In the first place, it gives a chance for the expression of personal love, as no institution can: it appeals to the kindly sentiments. Second, it advances the child's intellectual nature in a way which is impossible in the best schools yet introduced into almshouses. Third, it instills obedience, not to cast-iron rules, but to a loving person. I do not for one moment wish to insinuate anything unkind against institutions. They are essential in their place, as a help to the ideal plans. The Chester County Children's Aid Society has had some sixty-seven children in two years under its care. The Pennsylvania society has been in existence for four years, and has had 1,914 children under its care. In the year 1884, a law went into effect providing that the children of the State should be removed from the almshouses to institutions already existing or to be founded, or to private homes. Thirteen counties believing in the latter plan have attempted to carry

it out. I have been asked to lay stress on two points. First, it has been said that the State society, in four years, and with 1,914 children to be cared for, has found no actual necessity for the temporary institution at all. That is stronger language, however, than I would be willing to indorse. Secondly, they say that they never separate the mother from the illegitimate child, but believe that they should be always kept together. Six months after that law took effect, one-third of the children were removed from the almshouses of the State. I have learned that the public children of Minnesota are, by law, to be placed in an asylum or State public school now in process of erection. It would be presumptuous for me to say a word against such a plan. But Mr. Letchworth has warned you against the danger of institutionalizing children. It is for you women with philanthropic hearts to carry out and supplement this work.

Adjourned at 12.30 P.M.

#### NINTH SESSION.

*Minneapolis, Monday night, July 19.*

The Conference met in the Plymouth Church of Minneapolis at 7.30 P.M., the President in the chair. Prayer was offered by Rev. G. H. Bridgman, president of Hamline University.

The report of the Committee on Labor in Prisons and Reformatories, prepared by the chairman, Z. R. Brockway, was read in his absence by Dr. A. G. Byers (page 113). The committee consisted of The following note was appended to the report:—

NOTE.—At this date, July 9, I have not secured responses to my request for signatures, except from Mr. Felton, who declines, and Rabbi Sonneschein, who cordially approves.

Z. R. BROCKWAY,

*Chairman.*

The report of the Committee on Federal Prisons and Prisoners was read by Gen. R. Brinkerhoff, chairman of the committee (page 107).

Addresses on the prison question were made by several speakers, as follows:—

Hon. R. B. HAYES.—I think I may, without going beyond what is entirely true, say to our friends of Minneapolis that our visit here is a most agreeable one. Our only regret is that it is too short. I need not, in the presence of so many of its citizens, make a catalogue of the advantages and attractions of the city. It is almost eight years since I had the privilege of a somewhat extended, though hasty, visit to this State. The change is vast and gratifying. I cannot speak of this city of Minneapolis alone. The members of this Conference see it connected with that other city where we have been holding our meetings. I have heard them spoken of as the dual city. We see

them as one. Those having old memories of the struggles and rivalries of the past may find it a little difficult to realize what is new; but, to us, the advantages of location,—at the head of the great valley of the great river of the continent,—these advantages are one. The attractions which are alluring here the intelligent and the enterprising people of the United States, and the people of all the civilized nations of the world,—those attractions are one. The inspiring future of these cities is one; and great, indeed, is that future,—a quarter of a million of people now, one-third as many as the great city of Chicago has. Counting the two cities together, I think it would rank as the eleventh or twelfth city in population in the United States. It is quite certain to be the sixth or seventh at the next national census; and, at the next beyond that, we are confident it is to rank with the great cities of the world. Great, then, are your opportunities, and great your privileges; and it is but commonplace to say great, therefore, are your responsibilities and your duties.

710 We come here to-night with reference chiefly to one great interest,—that interest which is wrapped up in the humane treatment and wise care of the children of misfortune, and of those who are in the ranks of vice and crime. Nominally, it is in the interest of those, and of those alone; but, really, their interest is the interest of all. We cannot separate the unfortunate and the vicious and the criminal from the rest of the social system. Thus far, at our Conference, our papers and discussions have been mainly with reference to the institutions in which are confined or gathered the persons described as the children of misfortune, and the wicked and the criminal: how best to deal with them; how to treat them as we would wish to be treated if we were in their places; how best to deal with them, so that they may be saved and sent out into society again, reformed and capable of being good citizens. But is that all? Does our society look no further than that? It seems to me that we must also consider the question that is in the line of the old adage that "an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure." Not merely What shall we do with the young criminal, that he may grow up and become a good citizen? and What shall we do with the old criminal, that he may be either reformed and sent out a good citizen or detained forever as a criminal where he can do society no harm? but we must go beyond this. And this is the question to which, for a moment, I wish to direct your attention,—How shall we prevent the young from becoming criminals?

I am glad to know that in this city this is no new question. I am glad to know that it is not necessary to marshal facts or arguments in regard to it. I wish merely to call attention, briefly, to this subject, that it may be more vividly before your minds. In the heat of a midsummer night, I must necessarily make no argument; but I may mention some of the items of that which is a complete argument.

One of the speakers, on Saturday evening, referred quite emphatically to what we all understand and believe,—that education is the

great preventive of crime. But do we in America, and especially do we in Minnesota, neglect education? Not at all. I see, from one end of your State to the other, colleges and institutions of learning of every kind. I understand very well that perhaps as bright a star as there is in your firmament is the provision made for universal education. Nor do I question at all the effect of the education, precisely as we have it, upon the general morality of the people. I wish to enter, if it is necessary, a protest against any inference, from what I may say, that I would disparage or criticise at all the American system of education in the public schools or the higher system of the American college. They have done too much for us to be disparaged or criticised. The tax-payers of the United States have paid no dollar into the public treasury which has brought so good a return as that which they have paid for public schools. But, like every other instrumentality of human contrivance, our system of public school education may have its defects. It may lack something which it ought to have. We must consider that that system sprang up in New England, under conditions and circumstances very different from those that surround us now. Then the great mass of the population of this country lived not in great cities. They lived in small villages and upon farms; and the boys and girls of that day were taught, not merely what is to be found in books, but the hand and the eye were trained in the school of labor of the New England home, and that was an important part of their education. Now, more and more, a large part of our population lives in the towns and great cities; and I speak with reference mainly to these towns and cities. No education in this country is complete and perfect, no education is what it ought to be, for the daughter or the son of the rich man or the poor man, which does not give to that child the capacity to make an honest living by the labor of that child's hands. I do not propose to argue this. I say, then, that for every conceivable purpose an improvement upon the present system of education would be to add careful and competent instruction in skilled labor for one or two hours each day of the whole school life of our boys and girls. Why? First, it makes them better physically. We all recall the adage of the sound mind in a sound body. Those of us who are on the downhill side of life again and again recall, as we look back, that girl or that boy, more promising intellectually than any of us, who has fallen by the wayside, because physical strength gave out. With proper physical training, the hope of a healthy humanity is to be realized; and, for that reason, I would have this habit of labor formed. It may be said, to be sure, that young people have their games, their base-ball, their boat-races, their swimming and horseback-riding and shooting and hunting. I believe in all of them. We have our gymnasiums, too, and I believe in them; but, after all, it is only the few that get advantage of these things. And then there is the danger that, in the desire to excel, harm may come. These college men beat those college men in a boat-race; and the result is that the thing is greatly overdone, and danger comes to the constitution instead of safety and strength.

This is the case then. The suggestion is that the children shall be put to the carpenter's bench and the blacksmith's forge; that they shall learn skilled labor, that gives health and muscle and strength to the boy, and that the girl shall be given something to do that answers for them.

Now for the intellect. The object of education is the training of the faculties of the mind. I have had some experience with men. I have sat with many boards of trustees and directors and councillors of all degrees, perhaps as much as the average of men; and this one fact has struck me everywhere. There will be one or two men, in every collection of six or eight or ten or twelve, who recollect exactly what was done at the last meeting, where we stopped, what we were discussing, who were there. When they speak, they will utter but few words; but they will go straight to the point. They are wise in judgment, executive in faculty. Nine times out of ten, if you learn the history of such a man, you will find that he was a mechanic in his youth; that he worked upon the farm; that he had learned how to cut down a tree, as Gladstone did; that he could plough a straight furrow when he was a boy. But how happens it that this is so,—that the best practical mind is trained, not with the Greek book or the Latin book or with the mathematics even, but with the jack-plane, the saw, and the plough? But so it is, and it is according to the law of nature. A boy takes up his Virgil or Homer, and is supposed to be studying it; but half that time his mind is wool-gathering at the mill-dam or the base-ball ground or somewhere else where fun and play are going. He does not learn that which is the object of educational training; namely, the ability to concentrate all the faculties upon the thing in hand. Now turn to the work-bench. There is a thing to be done, there is the material, there are the tools, and there is the instruction. His mind must be on that task, or the material is ruined, the tools are broken, and the boy's hands are cut. Let the instruction at that bench be good and careful, and my belief is that it is a better intellectual training of the memory, of attention, of judgment, of the power of concentration of the faculties, than the study of any book known in school or college.

But what has this to do with the work of this Conference? Let us go a little farther. I have heard no statistics giving the facts as to the education of all our convicts; but I heard them given for one State, and I think it was said that in one of the great prisons seven-eighths of the convicts had learned no trade. Seven-eighths had no way of making an honest living, and so became convicts. Another fact I heard,—that the great prison had so small a per cent. of convicts who could not both read and write that it was hardly worth mentioning. Then the ability to read and write alone does not keep men from becoming convicts. But, I say, teach every boy in this country an honest trade by which he can make his living, and you will greatly diminish the number of criminals. Our present school system is admirable; yet our girls and boys come out of these schools without any profound respect for labor or for the laborer, or with



a willingness to make their living by the labor of their hands. There is the weak point of the present system. People of Minnesota and of Minneapolis and of St. Paul, see to it that, in all your arrangements for education, you do not forget to give to the young the spirit of labor, respect for labor, the habit of labor, a willingness to labor, and ability to labor.

This industrial system costs but little. It has been started in St. Louis, in Chicago, in Toledo, in Cleveland, and in many cities of the East. A little less expended in the pride of architecture, in external decoration of the great school-houses, would enable you, without any increased general expense, to build the shops that are needed. Competent instructors can be obtained in St. Louis, in Worcester, in New York; and, in six weeks' time, you can have it going. I would say emphatically that I know of no one change that will do as much to prevent crime in the future as to introduce industrial, practical education, and a knowledge of skilled labor, into our educational system.

The aim of this Conference is to do something to lift up the neglected and the depressed, to restore to society the vicious and criminal, or to place them where they can do society no harm; and we cannot neglect these duties. These dangers and these evils are in all our cities, they are at every man's door. No man can intrench his family safely against them. Blindness and deafness and idiocy carry sorrow to our best homes. Vice and crime do somehow reach the manliest sons and the loveliest daughters. Men are so tied together, society is so compacted, and Providence hath so ordained it, that, whether we would have it so or not, we must be and are our brothers' keepers. There is a taint in crime, in vice, in human suffering, in human degradation, which spreads through the whole social fabric. It is this consideration that makes necessary such societies as this Conference. It is this consideration that makes it the duty of every man with a conscience not to neglect his fellow, his brother. He cannot neglect this duty, and thrive; society cannot neglect it, and live; no Christian society ever will neglect this duty.

Mr. ROUND.—I was asked to come here and say a few words, following Gen. Brinkerhoff on the subject of United States Prisons. I have always felt that Gen. Brinkerhoff was one of the worst men to speak after that could be found, because he so thoroughly cleans up everything as he goes on, and is so sure to gather all the latest facts and statistics and to bring in the best arguments, as to leave nothing to his follower to say; nor do I believe that a meeting of this kind, after such an array of figures as we have heard, needs to be told what should be done in regard to United States prisoners. The facts of the case at present are that ten thousand prisoners have committed crimes against the United States government, and they are confined in the very worst of all penitentiaries and jails in the country. If, in all my inspection of all penitentiaries in New York State, I have found a very bad one, where everything was owned by the contractors, even to the officials, where the labor was

a kind of slave labor, with no thought of the uplifting of the prisoner, there I have been almost sure to find a large number of United States prisoners. In my own State is one of the penitentiaries that pays most largely, and is reckoned one of the worst. It is so bad that one of the judges on the bench got up and denounced it, and said that he had been approached with an offer of money to send prisoners there, that money might be made by their labor. It is so bad that nearly every legislature thinks it must investigate it, and this is the way that they did it on one occasion. I read the newspaper account of it; and it said that the commission drove up to the doors of the penitentiary at eleven o'clock, were received by the warden, who invited them in. They walked through the penitentiary corridors, and at 12.30 were invited to sit down to a magnificent collation, which they enjoyed most heartily, and left at three, convinced that nothing was wrong there. In this penitentiary, I think there is the largest number of United States prisoners in any penitentiary in the State of New York. It is easy to show the lack of responsibility on the part of the United States government toward its prisoners. That they should be sent to the worst penitentiaries, to those who care the least possible for their reformation,—this is sufficient to show the lack of responsibility on the part of the government.

Last November, at the International Prison Congress at Rome, I was asked to tell something about our United States prisons. I looked over that splendid gathering, and saw men who had come from Belgium, from France, from Switzerland, from other countries, with great prisons and complete prison systems; and I had to fall back on the military prison at Fort Leavenworth as the only United States prison we have. This prison proves that the United States can have a good prison, for it is one of the best in the country. I felt then that I would come back and do what I could to try to remove this stigma from our own reputation in regard to our care of United States prisoners, for I am very proud of being an American; and I believe that what Belgium and France and Italy can do we can do better, with our great prestige in prison matters, if we set about it. It seems to me that we ought, by every means in our power, to take measures to provide a United States prison that should be second to none in the world, where every experiment for reformatory ends that can be tried should be tried, and that we should be able to point out such a prison as the model prison of the country. This, I think, we ought to do at once, so that, when we go to the International Prison Congress in St. Petersburg, four years from now, we may not have to stand embarrassed and ashamed, when asked to tell about the prisons of our general government.

One word in relation to the National Prison Association and your own State. The National Prison Association desires to unify the prison systems of all the States. If it can be of assistance here, it wants to be. In this splendid State,—which seems, even in the very first development of its resources, to be almost regal,—while your prison system is not yet quite complete, let me beg of you not to get

fastened on you any of those terrible mistakes of our prison system that exist elsewhere. Do not let the old county jail get too strong a foothold. If there is anything iniquitous in our system, it is that. Do not be afraid, when you are building a new prison, to accept the most advanced ideas. The indeterminate sentence has been tried long enough to prove that it is a success or can be made a success threefold above the old system. The Elmira Reformatory stands before the world as the model prison of America. I do not know how we regard it in this country, but it is so regarded in Europe. I fully believe in the system; and I know it to be true that eighty-four per cent. of the young men who are sent there under the indeterminate sentence, and are released conditionally, become reasonably good citizens. I never see one of those men as he comes into our office, month after month, walking upright and honest, able to look the world squarely in the face, but I thank God for this system, and that it first became a living force in a country that I love so well. Eighty-four per cent. against forty or fifty of restorations to society claimed under the old system! Sometimes, it seems, when we hear of anything so radical as the abolishment of the time sentence, as though the old spirit of conservatism rose up and paralyzed us. What we ought to do, as good American citizens, is to give up everything that is bad, no matter how long we have had it, and be satisfied with nothing but the best, no matter how new it is or where it comes from. I speak of this because I know you are about to build a new prison in this State, and I know there will be objections to trying a system that seems so radically different from the old one. Since I have been here looking at the wonderful enterprise of these two cities, St. Paul and Minneapolis, I have also seen some photographs that represented the track of the cyclone. I have thought that, if Minnesota could only send us a moral cyclone, that would go over the whole country and sweep away our county jails and blow around us that glorious spirit of enterprise that we all feel in the air here, we should then feel that we must have the very best prison system that the world has yet known, and that we could have no other. If Minnesota could do this, we who are prison reformers should look forward to coming here as to a sort of Mecca. I ask you if you will help in this matter of prison reform, and I am as well satisfied with your answer as though you uttered it with a great single voice that should shake this building to its foundation.

Dr. HILL, of Oregon.—The mission of law is fourfold in its nature: it is preventive, protective, punitive, and reformative. Every one present will agree with the first three of these statements: there may be some question as to the fourth. Then there may be some question as to how far the State should proceed in the matter of punishment for an infraction of the law. What should be the attitude of the State in dealing with law-breakers? When we consider the good of society not only, but when we consider the criminal, we must acknowledge that there should be reform of the prison, and, if possible, reform of the prisoner as well. How shall these be accom-

plished? I cannot say except in so far as the question has presented itself to my own mind. I find myself in an attitude of interrogation. Opinions which I formerly held I find demolished or overthrown, or, at least, unsettled, by the utterances of those who have for so many years been engaged in dealing with the criminal classes. My opinions now, therefore, are subject to revision; and I shall be glad if some satisfactory method shall show us how to reform the great host who are now the enemies of society.

I think, then, that it is absolutely essential in an effort to secure reformation to have competent prison officials,—men who not only understand human nature, but who, by their training and their qualifications, by their sympathy with human distress and with their fellow-men, are competent to take hold of these erring brethren who are committed to their care. Prison officials, as we find them, are too often the creatures of political change, persons who have come to position as a reward for their services in a canvass; and they attempt to enforce their views on the management of prisons without ever having studied the subject. The result is of course sometimes exceedingly disastrous. We have known where the whole discipline was changed by the change of wardens from political reasons.

Second, there should be a discriminating segregation,—not an entire segregation, but there should be, at least, a restraint of unlimited intercourse between all classes of offenders. In the State prison of Oregon there have sometimes been as many as six prisoners in one cell. How is it possible under such circumstances to prevent the depraving of the young and the confirming of the old in their vicious habits and inclinations? When separation is accomplished, then those young in crime and in years may at least have an opportunity to take steps to better lives in the future.

Third, there should be a better system of employment, which will give such occupation as will enable the prisoner to forget, if possible, the criminal desires and instincts of his nature,—employment more or less congenial, but having an outlook toward his restoration to society, and of such a nature as will enable him to support himself by his own hands. There is no foe to reformation so dangerous as idleness in the prison.

Fourth, there should be coupled with these elements in reform something of education, something of kindly sympathy from the officials in charge, as a stimulus to the prisoners. I listened with attention to the arguments on the indeterminate sentence and the power of pardon, as they were presented to this Conference; and it seems to me that, if there be held before the prisoner the possibility of release when he has learned the error of his way and when he has learned to support himself, he will strive to the best of his ability to secure the blessing of freedom and of earning an honest livelihood. These are what I consider essential elements in reform. Others there are, such as moral education,—an education which should not, however, partake of sectarianism in any form.

This leads us to the final question of all. Sometimes, we should

stand outside of the prison walls, and look upon the prisoner and his relations to society. It is our duty now, after he has atoned for his fault, to enable him to maintain himself. But how often have we seen the shops closed upon those ready to earn their living! How often have we seen people stand aside, for fear of contamination from such persons! We need that the prisoner should understand that we recognize in him a brother; and we should throw around him all kindly influences, until he stands forth once more a man, honest, law-abiding, able to do his part in the State.

Mr. WINES.—In the English Parliament, when the celebrated Mr. Burke was a member of that body, a gentleman who was his great admirer, but who was himself utterly unable to make a speech, on one occasion, after Burke had made one of those speeches which gave him his renown, arose in his place, and said, "I say ditto to Mr. Burke." When I heard the admirable address of Mr. Hayes, I, too, felt like saying, "Ditto"; for it seems to me that in touching this question of the education of the youth of our land, and especially their education in an industrial sense, he touched upon one of the most vital points of the prison question. If we had more labor outside of prisons, there would be less necessity for discussing the question of labor in prisons.

Indeed, when I look at this whole subject of prison discipline and prison reform, it seems to me very difficult to tell from what direction it is most important to approach it.

Sometimes I think that the most important point is our abominable system of county jails, which cannot be reformed, but need to be overthrown and abolished. I understand that, when we meet at Atlanta, we are to have an exhibition of models of jails from all parts of the country,—iron jails and stone jails and brick jails,—everything, I suppose, but log jails; and I have seen a good many log jails in my day. But I am sorry to see any improvement in county jails. I hate a good jail, because every good jail that is built tends to fasten the iniquitous jail system more firmly upon us.

Sometimes, I think that the most important question as to prisons is whether they shall be continued on the congregated plan or whether they shall be conducted on the separate system. While I am not an advocate of the separate system, I will say that it has its merits, and ought to have a place in every prison system. It ought certainly to be applied to our prisons for detention, and probably to all prisons in which there are prisoners sentenced for short terms for minor offences; and I wish that it might receive more consideration at the hands of prison reformers than it does.

Sometimes, it seems to me that the most important point is the officering of a prison, because any system is, after all, but a tool; and a good tool in the hands of an incompetent workman will accomplish no good result, while a good workman will accomplish excellent results with an inferior tool. It is more important to have good prison officers than to have a good prison system. I feel as if it were necessary that we should take at least so much of the civil

service reform as commends itself to sensible and practical men, and apply it to our prison system, before we can have the reformation in prison discipline that we seek and desire.

At other times, it seems to me that the great question is the question of the indeterminate sentence,—whether the prisoner shall be committed for a definite time, under a definite sentence pronounced by the judge at the time of his conviction, or whether the duration of his sentence shall depend upon his conduct and his amenability to reformation. My friend, Mr. Round, in his admirable speech, has alluded to the fact that Minnesota is to have a new prison, and has expressed the hope that it will be upon the Elmira plan, coupled with the fear that the conservatism natural to the heart of man may prevent this. The eyes of the whole country are turned this way, with mingled hope and fear. What is known as the Elmira plan of prison organization does not involve anything like the amount of novelty which is commonly supposed. There are three things which chiefly go to make it up. First, what is called the indeterminate sentence. We speak of that as though it were something new. It is nothing new. It does not raise any new questions in jurisprudence, I think, which have not been settled by judicial decisions in the application of punishment to juvenile offenders. Wherever the State sends a boy to a reformatory for an indefinite period, and gives the authorities power to release him at their discretion, there the indeterminate sentence is in practical operation. All that we ask is that the same principle which has worked such good results in the case of juvenile delinquents should be applied to adult offenders as well. Is there any wonderful change in the basis of the criminal law in that? Will the adoption of this suggestion plunge the republic into chaos? Second, the classification of prisoners under the "mark" system. But there is nothing new in that. It has been tried for years in Ireland. England has in part adopted it. You will find prisons all over Europe in which the same thing is done. There is nothing unnaturally shocking or wonderful in it. Third, conditional release. In other words, release when it is reasonably safe to society to allow the prisoner to go out on parole,—he is released on probation. This method has been applied, and is in practical application in a great many nations. We have seen it in application in our own country at Elmira for seven years, and have seen no harm from it. There has been no complaint in New York on account of it.

Then, when we ask you to adopt the principle of the indeterminate sentence in Minnesota, and to make it applicable to your new prison, we do not ask you to do something wonderful, which will endanger the stability of the criminal law or the administration of justice or the security of society. I trust that this meeting will see this point so clearly that, should any member of the legislature try to make a false impression as to the difficulty of the undertaking, there will be intelligent men and women here who can expose his fallacies and contradict his mistaken assertions.

Whatever point of view we may take, there is no doubt that the



subject of prisons and prison discipline is one of the most important that can concern the human mind. I am sorry that Mr. Brockway is not here, but I will quote one of his excellent sayings. He said to me once that there are in every man's mind three stages in regard to this question. The first is that in which he does not know that there is a prison question. The second is when he finds out that there is such a question, and that there is none of greater moment to society; he is sure that, if the solution of it were only left to him, he could devise the necessary measures by which to put an end to crime and suffering. Finally, he concludes to leave the whole matter to younger and abler men. We talk of the evils of the present system, but to find the remedy is more difficult.

There was another part of Mr. Hayes' address to which I wish to say "ditto,"—that in which he thanked the citizens of Minneapolis for their magnificent hospitality to-day. Before we separate, we shall of course pass a formal vote of thanks; but that cannot express the feelings of our hearts,—the regret which we experience at parting with you. We are sorry not to see you in your own homes, and know you better; but we feel the great kindness and consideration shown to us to-day in our delightful drive through your city, and in the elegant collation served with such simplicity and good taste. God bless you, and may we meet again.

Adjourned at 10.30 A.M.

#### TENTH SESSION.

*Tuesday morning, July 20.*

The Conference met at 9 A.M., the President in the chair. Prayer was offered by Bishop Gillespie.

A letter was read from C. E. Felton, of New York (page 391), giving his reasons for declining to sign the report on Labor in Prisons and Reformatories.

Reports from States were continued.

The report from Wisconsin (page 344) was read by Dr. J. H. Vivian.

The report from the District of Columbia was read by Mrs. Sara A. Spencer.

The report from Pennsylvania, prepared by Hon. Cadwalader Biddle, was read by Dr. E. P. Jefferis (page 336).

The report of the Committee on Charity Organization was read by the chairman, W. Alexander Johnson (page 168).

A paper on "Schemes for the Self-help for the Poor" was read by N. S. Rosenau, of Buffalo (page 176).

A paper on "Individuality in the Work of Charity" was read by George B. Buzelle, of Brooklyn, N.Y. (page 185).

## DISCUSSION ON CHARITY ORGANIZATION.

Dr. KLOMAN.—We have in Baltimore, Md., a Provident Savings Bank, in which small sums are allowed to be deposited, from a dime up to twelve hundred dollars. When the amount reaches three dollars, interest is allowed. We have a number of the ordinary savings banks in Baltimore; but the trouble with them is that the amount received is generally limited to one dollar, and the banking hours make it almost impossible for the poor to make use of them. It would necessitate the loss of a day's labor to deposit between the hours of ten and two. Poor people cannot afford this. Our society took great interest in an endeavor to have a postal savings bank established by the United States Government. But, as it seemed impossible to get the general Government to take an interest in the subject, we had an act passed by our legislature, giving us the power to establish district banks in Baltimore and the neighborhood. These banks are open on Saturday evenings (and other evenings, as business requires) from seven to nine. They pay three per cent. interest. All the expenses are borne by the savings banks. The board of directors is divided into as many committees as there are branches. Each committee takes charge of its branch, at least one member is present each evening the branch is open, all clerical work connected with the branches is voluntary. We trust that this will be of great assistance in making the poor more provident.

Some six or seven years ago, a philanthropist, Thomas Wilson, left a large sum of money for charitable purposes,—for the establishment of a sanitarium for children under two years of age. He had lost both of his own children in their early childhood, and in his old age, being childless, remembered his loss, and, having no direct heirs, left five hundred thousand dollars for the establishment of this sanitarium. A farm was purchased near the city with part of the money: the remainder was invested for its support. He also left one hundred thousand dollars for a fund to aid the poor in purchasing sewing-machines and coal, which are sold to worthy poor at cost and on instalments. The money is invested at the proper season of the year in purchasing coal at the lowest market rates, and is then sold to the poor in such amounts as they can afford to purchase at cost prices.

Father CLEARY.—We have a bad tramp law in Wisconsin: we have almost given a chromo to every man who was invested with the dignity of being a tramp. Some counties in our State have had to expend as much as \$15,000 a year for the maintenance of these gentlemen of leisure. We had a wretched old jail in our county, and I sometimes found as many as eighty of these unfortunate men confined in it for a night. They had become so utterly regardless of their surroundings that they were willing to stay in this wretched old rat-hole. I found that these men were not all ignorant or illiterate. Among them were men of education, who had also skill as mechanics or as good laborers; but they had become so depraved that they

would no longer work honestly with their hands nor industriously with their minds, and were utterly regardless of the common decencies of civilized life. There must be some underlying cause for this great evil that brings these men to such depths. What is it? That cause is the saloon, the drink traffic. If we can make this class of men sober, we shall have no more tramps. That is my experience. If I were to offer any suggestion for the solution of this question, I would say, Let us lock up all the professional tramps in some home for imbeciles or the insane for the remainder of their lives, to protect society and to protect these men from themselves. But, when we have done that, let us lock up the saloon, that men may be depraved no more. Perhaps no men have more experience with this class than the Catholic clergy. I have given relief myself to a great many tramps of all degrees and conditions. I have had fifteen years' experience as a Catholic priest in relieving and in refusing relief to these men. It is only of late years that I have begun to refuse. I find, usually, that it is entirely thrown away on them. I have not been fortunate in making them work. I recall one man who insisted that he wanted nothing but work. I gave it to him; and he worked for me a week, honestly, industriously, and faithfully, and I paid him. Now, I said, I have found an honest tramp; and I was delighted to recommend him. I found him an excellent place, where he was to begin on Monday morning. Monday morning, it was raining; and he did not appear. Monday noon, he came; but he was as drunk as a trooper. He said he had not had such a "magnificent drunk" within his memory. My honest tramp has not yet turned up. I am perfectly convinced that the underlying cause of this social depravity is the use of liquor; and I hope the members of this Conference will constantly and unfailingly denounce and try to suppress the liquor traffic, as we see it conducted to-day. Let a law be passed preventing liquor-dealers from selling to this class of men; let a public opinion be formed, that shall visit with indignation any dealer that will furnish these men with liquor. Because, after all, they are a class of insane men. There is no other explanation for their conduct. Men will not forsake happy firesides, they will not leave their wives and children and go through hardship and degradation and misery by the highways and by-ways or in jails and penitentiaries, if they are sane.

Bishop GILLESPIE.—I think Mr. Buzelle struck a chord which is very important. He referred to the influence of the individual in charity, and that includes work in the community and the church. Now, my work is in connection with the State; and I honor and love the State for what it is doing for the relief of suffering. But there are certain difficulties connected with the State aid. One is that State aid is uncertain aid. Those of us who have to go before the legislature and meet the prejudices of certain men have constant occasion to fear that some of our charities may suffer from lack of the needed aid at the hands of the legislature. But let that pass. There is a religious difficulty. Now, I am not going to speak as a clergyman; but there is this religious difficulty connected with our State chari-

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ties, that any teaching of religion on the part of the State must be very attenuated, very feeble, and most indefinite. We all have our strong religious sympathies: they are the strongest that we have. A pauper is entitled to have the ministrations of his own communion: the prisoner is entitled to the same. But these cannot come from the State institutions. There is another point which will come home to most of us, and that is that State aid has very little influence upon individual character. It does not bring with it, to those working in it, the blessings that individual benevolent work or community work or church work does. There is another point on which I will say one single word, and that is that we can never discharge the duty of charity by paying our taxes. Our receipt of taxes paid is not a passport into life. This Conference should continue to do what I am happy to see it is doing,—give the very largest encouragement to the charity of the individual, the charity of the community, and the charity of the Church. It was very gratifying, the other evening, to have presented to us the noble charity of one branch of the Church; and I trust that at all of our meetings there will be presented similar testimony as to the charities of all the leading Christian bodies. I think that the State may very fairly turn to the community, and say: You must help us. You must take care of your own townsmen. These are your fellow-citizens; and you, within your own borders, must make provision for their wants, and not throw them upon the State. So may she remind the Church of her tradition and her history, and urge upon her that she shall look after her own.

A paper was then read by Rev. W. L. Bull, of Whitford, Pa., on "Trampery: Its Causes, Present Aspects, and Some Suggested Remedies" (page 188).

#### DISCUSSION RESUMED.

Mr. WRIGHT.—By far the most important organizations for the carrying on of charity are Christian churches. My only complaint is that they do not do what they ought to do. If all the congregations would do their share, the charitable work of this country would be done more effectively than it is; and the State would not be called upon for the relief of the poor. It is a shame to us as Christians that this is not so; that we allow the public, the State, to relieve the poor. This relief cannot be well done by the public. It can be better done by private effort, and our Charity Organization Societies can show us how it can best be done. Our Christian churches need to be enlightened as to what Christian duty is. I believe one great part of their work is teaching the application to the nineteenth century of the words of Jesus Christ in relation to the care of the poor. If our Christian churches, generally, would only give, not a contribution now and then, but give themselves to this work, we should have no need to discuss this question of labor and capital and communism, or the liquor traffic, or the other evils

that afflict society, because we should reach them, not by wholesale, but by reaching the individual soul and home, and lifting them up.

Dr. JEFFERIS.—I feel that the great underlying work that we have got to do is the establishment throughout the country of a system of registration. I do not have much faith in employment bureaus, but rather that we should have a Bureau of Information. I want to speak especially of what we have done in Philadelphia, in the hope that it will give an impulse to other societies. We have a law, recently passed, which allows the establishment of two or more wayfarers' lodges. Coupled with the provision for this is a provision, also, for the closing of our police station houses, by the mayor's approval. Our success has been this: before the establishment of wayfarers' lodges, we were giving from sixty to eighty and ninety thousand lodgings to men and women who were turned out at five o'clock in the morning to beg their subsistence. We calculated that the average amount begged and received by the tramps in Philadelphia was over fifty dollars a day. We have, since the opening of the lodges, closed the station houses east of the Schuylkill River, which covers almost the entire area of the city, but have still two in West Philadelphia. The reason for that was to prevent any possible suffering. In station houses where they told me, from actual count, that they had given fifteen hundred lodgings per month, after we had closed them and opened our lodges, we received but one hundred and fifty, or one-tenth of that number. Only this number would accept of our hospitality and our work. The result has been to give the able-bodied and well-to-do men, who are looking about for work, help until they find work.

Mr. McCULLOCH.—I want to say one word for the tramp. We use that word for a great many different people. There is another side to that question. From my experience of seven or eight years in connection with the Friendly Inn, it seems to me that the larger number are men who are honestly looking for work. I do not believe that ten per cent. belong to the dangerous or intemperate classes. Any man can become a tramp in a short time, if out of work. If he has been refused and refused and become discouraged, he will take the best place he can find, which is often the worst that he can get, to sleep and to eat. Give a dog a bad name, and he will become a bad dog. Just so with these men. A man who is out of employment and is seeking for food and work should not be called a tramp. He is not so. Ninety per cent. of all who are called tramps are honest men. They have been thrown out of work by industrial depression and changes. They cannot jump from one job to another. We have had a succession of men come to us black-handed, who have worked in iron, who say to us, "We cannot find work: help us on"; and I am glad to help them on. At the Friendly Inn, we took care of six thousand men last year, giving food, lodging, and an opportunity to work. If you shut your station doors to these wayfarers, you must open others.

An address on the Causes of Pauperism and Crime was given by Fred. H. Wines (page 207).

Mrs. VAN CLEVE, president of the Sisterhood of Bethany, Minneapolis, spoke of the work accomplished under her direction.

A resolution with reference to the *International Record* was introduced by Gen. BRINKERHOFF, and referred to the Business Committee (page 420).

Mr. W. L. BULL offered a resolution with reference to the duty of State Boards of Charities in regard to tramps, which was referred to the Business Committee (page 421).

Adjourned at 12.35 P.M.

#### ELEVENTH SESSION.

*Tuesday afternoon, July 20.*

The Conference met at 2.30 P.M., the President in the chair.

Rabbi SONNESCHEIN paid the following tribute to the memory of the late Bishop C. F. Robertson, of Missouri:—

Rabbi S. H. SONNESCHEIN.—Mr. President and members of the Conference, I am called upon to pronounce words of praise in commemorating our late lamented coworker, Bishop Charles F. Robertson, of Missouri. This Conference conferred this solemn and sacred task on me, I am sure, for no other reason but that you thought that I, who knew him during so many pleasant years of personal neighborly and professional intercourse, was qualified to do justice to the life and memory of our immortal brother and friend.

In thinking of him at this moment, and vividly calling to my vision the presence of the good and noble bishop whom we so sadly miss in our ranks, I cannot resist quoting that Scriptural word of sweet pathos and longing,—“I am asleep, but my heart is awake!” These words appeal to me with all that tender, mysterious, and undying comfort which the mute lips of the beloved dead are whispering into our ears from the very depth of the tomb and the very height of heavenly abode.

“I am asleep, but my heart is awake!” I am with you no more in body; but I abide with you in that heartiest living sympathy, which forever attaches men to men, linking together the entire race in the name of their Eternal Father, who is in heaven, and whose everlasting love vouchsafes our life immortal.

With each rising of the sun, the bright twinkling of the stars is fading away. But the fact that the glaring and glorious orb of the day absorbs the lesser lights which illumine the night is never to be taken as a proof of their utter disappearance and annihilation. So with the dawn and opening of our eternal day,—the day which is an everlasting joy and a Sabbath without end. The star of our earthly career grows dim and dimmer, until it utterly disappears. But this disappearance, we know, is only a seeming one. It is the brighter life after death which absorbs and supersedes the weaker life after



birth. In proportion as we firmly believe in the reality of our heavenly immortality, in the same ratio the despairing dread of death and oblivion loses its force and exhausts its fearfulness. Fully to believe in the immortality of our soul, we must witness the death of the just. I can bear testimony to the saintly death of Bishop Robertson, and I can bear testimony to his saintly life. A sweeter and a more upright man never lived and never died in the harness of unswerving loyalty to a sacred trust and a divine mission.

His life was a comparatively short one. Just on that station of human pilgrimage on earth when the hilly and rough roads are left behind, and the broad and fertile plains are entered upon by a straight and well-paved highway,—just at that junction, the beloved bishop was summoned to the higher, to the heavenly walks of life. Those friends here who so well remember his exquisitely serene and sympathetic countenance will best understand the mainspring of that popularity, love, and esteem which he commanded among all classes and masses of my city and State. He was one of those thoroughbred scholars who never flaunt their learning before the world. His leisure hours were given to the profound study of profound volumes, and not to the vapid writing of shallow books. He was one of those rare and gentle souls who are among the first to discover even the most hidden vein of nobility in every other human soul. He was one of those precious and saintly priests of God, who, when at the very height of their success and ambition, are best adapted and equipped actively to sympathize with their pitiable fellow-beings who are despairing in the deepest ditch of wretchedness and depravity.

And how broad and genial were his religious temper and discretion! I, the Hebrew, ought certainly to be believed when I say Bishop Robertson was made of that Christian mettle which is as pure as gold and as true as steel. How well do I remember this scene, which for the first time gave me the best opportunity to study and admire his religious broadness, generosity, and unstinting catholicity! It happened about eight years ago. The local clergy of St. Louis, representing all denominations, met together to discuss and to ratify the Bill of Licensing Marriages, then pending before the legislature of our State. There were more than a hundred ministers present, Roman Catholic, Protestant, Unitarian, and Hebrew. The Bishop presided. The discussion was a very animated one. In the heat of debating the merits and failings of the bill, one gentleman—one of those few rampant fanatics, who cannot see beyond the walls of their own church, and who are totally incapable of grasping the real American idea of mutual good-will and toleration—began to denounce, in some hackneyed phrases, the Roman Catholic clergy for their alleged disloyalty to American law and discipline. He said that a priest who submits to the dictations of Rome, first and last, cannot be a true American patriot. You ought to have seen and heard Bishop Robertson, as I did then and there. In his calm way, half dignity and half modesty, he rose, and called the effervescent brother to

order by simply saying, "I beg your pardon, gentlemen: our friend yonder himself seems not to understand yet the very first principle and the paramount obligation of American citizenship."

You ought to have heard the outburst of acclamation and seen the sneaking away of the censured brother, as I did. We were over one hundred clergymen present, many old and some young ones, many orthodox and some radical ones; but we all went home from that memorable meeting wiser, better, and truer teachers of religion than we were before.

Shall I tell you what Bishop Robertson has done, during the eighteen years of the administration of his diocese, for the promotion and fostering of that very cause which brings these our annual gatherings together? Be it sufficient to say that his deeds speak for him. One never heard of Bishop Robertson's activity in behalf of private as well as public charity, but one could see it wherever he went through the entire length and breadth of the State of Missouri.

His was the work and the method of nature. Not in the roaring tempests of clashing theologies did you discern his doctrine; not in the hissing and lashing of the fiery tongues of fanaticism did he delight; not a thundering earthquake of uprooting reforms was to be expected in his wake. His was the still, small voice of a divinely consecrated conscience. He is now asleep, but his heart is awake. His heart of flesh is beating no more. It is put away in the dark shelf of earthly decay called the tomb, but his spiritual heart is quickened for ever and ever with that eternal pulsation of life which is warranted unto us by faith and hope and charity.

Bishop GILLESPIE.—Permit me, as a long personal friend of Bishop Robertson and as connected with his Church, to thank Rabbi Sonneschein for the very beautiful tribute to my friend and our departed bishop.

Mr. WINES.—I think that we would all say the same, were our hearts not too full for utterance.

A paper on "Hospitals for the Sick: Their Construction and Management," was read by Dr. P. S. Conner, of the Medical College of Ohio (page 237).

A short paper on the "Proper Care of Girls and Women while in the Custody of the State," by Mrs. J. M. Parker, of New York, was read by Mr. Fulton.

A paper on "Education of the Blind," by B. B. Huntoon, of Louisville, Ky., was read in his absence by the Secretary (page 234).

#### DISCUSSION OF HOSPITALS AND ASYLUMS.

Dr. BYERS.—I am exceedingly delighted with the paper on Hospitals; and, while from much observation of the different kinds of bedsteads employed in hospitals I do not believe in iron bedsteads, yet there were very few things suggested that do not meet with my

approval. As to working homes for the blind, I have serious doubts as to their utility. I have no objection to the superintendents of institutions for the deaf and the dumb, the blind and imbeciles, withdrawing themselves from the circle of charitable institutions and allying themselves with the educational institutions of the country; but I do not understand the prejudice that makes them apprehensive that some reflection is made upon them by calling these institutions asylums.

Mr. Dow.—The word "asylum" does not properly characterize our institution at Faribault, yet it is spoken of every day as an asylum.

Mr. Wright.—In Wisconsin, we speak not of an asylum, but of a school for the deaf and dumb.

Mr. Dow.—We call ours a school among ourselves, but the public do not call it so. The prejudice against workingmen's homes for the blind is this: The general principles laid down in regard to educational institutions are that by such institutions the blind shall become self-sustaining. If, at the end of the period assigned for education, it is necessary to have homes for them, we seem to have cut away the ground for institutional education for them. Yet I think it may be shown that the two ideas are not antagonistic. In the first place, our statistics show that somewhere about twenty per cent. of the blind lose their sight before reaching adult years. There are, then, the remaining eighty per cent. to be provided for. Many by losing sight lose the means which they have had for earning a living. Working homes for the blind open a way to learn new trades. There are many who cannot learn to support themselves, though there are many who can. They may learn to use their hands in the broom-shop, and yet not have the business ability to run the business after they have learned the trade. Such a person, going out and being thrown on the world, makes a failure. Yet that person under guidance might be able to earn his own living. There is a field for working homes for the blind, especially if they can be made very nearly self-supporting, as in some places I think they are. It has been objected that they are State institutions; but it by no means follows that, because we are to have workingmen's homes for the blind, they are to be under State supervision or supported by the State.

Mrs. Flower.—All those who have anything to do with county institutions know that the nurses are almost invariably appointed, not for their fitness for the place, but as a reward for political service. Such was the condition in Cook County Hospital formerly, and the result was continuous complaint. The physicians said that it was impossible to have proper assistants; and, as a result, they lost patients. In private homes, also, we felt the same necessity for good nurses. Fifteen years ago, twenty-five ladies organized the Illinois Training-school, formed on the plan of Bellevue Hospital Training-school. They obtained a charter, and succeeded in gaining admission to the Cook County Hospital. We know how hard it is to do any work where we come in competition with the dispensation

of patronage. It was hard, therefore, to get admission to this hospital; but we were finally allowed two wards, and we at once went to work. We raised \$25,000, and built a part of a home, which we hope some time to finish. Fortunately for us, the administration of Cook County Hospital changed; and the present warden came into office, and heartily co-operated with us, and we have now ten wards. Last year, we took charge of four thousand three hundred and two patients. It is a free hospital; and those who come there are those who cannot receive the attention they need in their own homes, although they are not paupers. In this work, we have opened an avenue of employment for women. They must come to us with a good recommendation, must be of good moral character, have a good common-school education and good health. We met at first great opposition from the physicians, because they feared we were educating doctors. But the first duty we instil is obedience,—to follow absolutely the physician's orders, to be intelligent hands for his head, and not to enter into competition with him. After being accepted, the women come on a month's probation, to see whether they have the qualifications for good nurses. A large number find it is work which they cannot put their hands to, and leave. Those who remain to the end of the month sign a paper to remain two years. The first year, they work in the hospital. The second, they are expected to go anywhere they are sent,—to the homes of the poor, to private cases, or as head-nurses in the wards. We pay eight dollars a month the first year, twelve the second, which enables them to clothe themselves. I think in every hospital there should be trained nurses, and, where the hospital is large enough, there should be a training-school.

Mr. McGARIGLE.—I desire to say one word as to aid to injured and sick people found on the streets. In Chicago, up to the year 1879, it was customary, when men were injured at railroads or were found sick on the streets, to put them into express-wagons, after a police officer had taken the time to find one, and thus carry them to the hospital, the whole consuming considerable time. In the winter of 1879-80, I inaugurated a patrol service of police, with wagons that respond to an alarm from a box. These wagons respond as a rule in from a minute and a half to three minutes. Each wagon is provided with a box similar to that carried on an ambulance, with restoratives, stimulants, etc. The injured are now brought to the hospital without loss of time. The doctors inform me that, before this system was inaugurated, many died after injuries,—not from the injuries themselves, but from the loss of blood on the way to the hospital. This is now avoided. Every city, I think, should be provided with a similar patrol service; and the wagons should be provided with all the appliances necessary. A surgeon lectures once a week to the men in charge of the wagons.

Mr. WRIGHT.—Milwaukee has the same system.

A paper on "The Education and the Care of the Deaf" (page 215), by G. O. Fay, Ph.D., Hartford, Conn., was read in his absence by Dr. Byers.

Mr. JOHN VISHNER, of Dakota, gave an account of the Deaf-mute School at Sioux Falls, which has some fifty pupils. The peculiarity of this school is that it is superintended by a deaf-mute. One professor and the matron are also deaf-mutes. They are able to speak, although they cannot hear. The school was started by an Episcopal church. He thought that churches in general ought to do more toward the creation of such institutions, in order thus to supplement the work of the State.

Adjourned at 4.50 P.M.

#### TWELFTH SESSION.

*Tuesday night, July 20.*

The Conference met at 8 P.M., the President in the chair.

A paper on the "Relations of Education and Industry to Crime and Pauperism," by Hon. Henry W. Lord, of Dakota, was read in his absence by the Secretary.

The report of the Committee on Immigration and Migration was read by the chairman, Dr. C. S. Hoyt, of New York (page 251).

A paper on "Migration and Immigration," by F. B. Sanborn, of Concord, was read in his absence by Mr. Wines (page 253.)

#### DISCUSSION ON IMMIGRATION.

Mr. WRIGHT.—The immigration of paupers, criminals, and lunatics into this country from foreign countries is partially guarded against by the laws that we already have, and will be better guarded in the future, doubtless. But I want to call attention to the fact that, between the several States here and between municipalities in the same State, we have a forced migration of paupers and undesirable persons. For instance, we have in Wisconsin a distinction between the county and the State insane. Those who have a legal residence in any county are charged to that county, and the transients to the State; and there are tribunals for deciding this question. We have about one hundred and fifty among our State insane who have wandered into our State or have been shipped in by our neighbors. We have some from as far east as New York. The shipping of paupers from one part of the country to the other is constantly going on. The State authorities in such States as New York and Massachusetts, where State authorities have charge of it, do it carefully, judiciously, and properly; but the local authorities in most places are only concerned to get rid of paupers. If a pauper comes to town, the authorities are anxious to get rid of his support, and ship him on to some other place. A person can easily acquire a residence and a right to vote, but it is not easy to acquire a pauper settlement. You will find many of these people are shipped along a little way at a time, because it is the easiest way to get rid of them;

and these travel across the continent at public expense. We need some system of inter-State extradition of paupers and insane.

Rabbi SONNESCHEIN.—I myself landed about eighteen years ago in New York. I belong to that race which is an emigrating race: I am one of the wandering Jews. To-day, I am of a certainty a *wondering* Jew. I cannot understand how those who are the descendants of the very ancestors who settled old Virginia, Maryland, Massachusetts, and New York can for a moment forget that even the Anglo-Saxons of a thousand, fifteen hundred, and two thousand years ago were a migrating people. I cannot understand how men who are certainly versed in the history of civilization forget that human nature will never change. In one sense, the Latin proverb is still true: "*Ubi bene ibi patria*,"—"There where I live contentedly, there is my country and my fatherland." I cannot for a moment understand how those very descendants of the ancient Pilgrims of the "Mayflower" can deny any poor man, so long as he is a true man, to land on these shores without the specific examination of his pocket-book. On the other hand, I cannot understand how those very descendants of the emigrants of later years, who landed in this country ten or fifteen years ago, can in the least try to oppose measures which will protect their pride, their self-esteem, in this country. We have no right to divert from our shores the emigration of healthful, law-abiding, and honest men, no matter how poor and no matter what their motives for coming to this country are. As long as they are honest and healthy, they are the very element needed to make this new Western country great and rich. I assure you that every sensible man, every naturalized American citizen, no matter from what shore he hails, will earnestly and patriotically join the efforts to stem the tide of pauper or criminal emigration which is a disgrace to every man from a foreign land. I am proud to think that the empire of Austro-Hungary, my native country, was the first to understand the position of America in this direction. From Austro-Hungary, nobody emigrates unless compelled to do so. No decent Hungarian boy, no decent Slav, no decent Austrian, but has plenty of opportunity to live and be contented where he is. It is either the freedom-loving, young, fortune-hunting, artist and artisan or the desperate, the uncombed, the vicious proletarian, of that part of the world, who desires to leave. Especially to this semi-Asiatic pauper element, America appears as the cherished and promised rich dumping ground. And thus they come. They think that money lies in the streets, and all that is necessary to do is to pick it up. Against that "good-for-nothing" class of foreigners, we must shield ourselves and our fortune. If we give people a chance to come, examine them, see who they are, what they are; and if they are intelligent, honest, and healthy, though ever so poor and forsaken, let them land and be welcome, heartily welcome, to the shining shores of this great, young, and growing country.

Bishop IRELAND.—From the papers and discussions I think we all agree as to the main points. It is clear that emigration from Europe into America is desired, provided it is of the proper kind.



Emigrants have built up the country. Emigrants have given to it their strength and their power. On the other hand, it is clear that, if improper subjects are sent to our shores, we should not receive them. I read some time ago that, in certain districts of Europe, it was a set plan to pick out of the poorhouses and insane asylums subjects who would be a burden to their native countries, and ship them to America.

Again, people fly from justice in Europe who are often, in our cities, the causes of strikes and riots and other social troubles. We owe it to our republic—and I am sure the emigrants who have come within the last fifty years, and who have learned to look on America as their home, will gladly co-operate with us—to ward off these unfit subjects. But not so much on this point do I wish to speak as to explain certain statistics contained in one of the papers read, or rather to give the cause of the statistics. It was said that emigrants in America furnish far more than their proportion of paupers and criminals generally. The statistics of poorhouses and prisons, I confess, do, *prima facie*, suggest these conclusions. And another more dangerous conclusion comes, perhaps, to the mind on reading those statistics,—that the general population of certain foreign countries from which we derive our emigration is made up of good-for-nothing and criminally disposed people. I beg to say the great bulk of emigrants coming to America are good, mean well, and come to us with the honest determination to earn their own living and to love the country of their adoption. They come with one misfortune, which is that they are poor. They land in America, subject to all the temptations and miseries incident to poverty. And, if they are afterwards found in poorhouses and in jails, it is owing to the temptations that follow poverty. Now, what should we do? We should, by our laws, protect them. The *great* temptation to poverty, the great misery of our emigrants, lies here,—that everything around them leads to intemperance. In their old homes, they had the respect of their own relatives to guard. They had many things which kept them within the limits of sobriety; and, although accustomed in many of the European countries to drink liquor, they were not in the habit of riotous drunkenness. When they land in Boston, New York, or St. Paul, they find saloons in every direction, abounding especially in the quarters of the poor; and the worst sort of liquor is sold to them. It is impossible in our large cities to obtain any law that will restrict the vending of poisonous liquors to these poor people. The politicians are the very class who will bring them to the saloons, in order to obtain their votes. Everything impresses these people, as they land in our cities, that the great element of success and of power is whiskey and beer. We look down on them with scorn, but we are not willing to cast our vote to restrict the rum-sellers who are determined to ruin them. I know a good deal about these matters. I have studied the statistics, and I admit that in many poorhouses seventy-five per cent. are foreigners. I ask the cause. It is simply the neighborhood of the saloons, the frequent temptation to drink. Go

before the police courts and see the foreigners there, and you will find that seventy-five per cent. of the cases originate with drink. Indeed, ninety per cent. of all the criminal cases originate with drink. If you take the higher crimes, that demand for their commission a steady hand and cool head, you will find that names of foreigners do not prevail in the list. Now, what shall we do to reach the root of this evil? We have been talking about jails and reform schools; but we should, at least, stigmatize the great cause leading men to them. I have spent years and years in this work; and I know very well, in places where we protect them by salutary laws, these emigrants rise quickly from poverty to comparative wealth, and are not found in jails or before courts. When you come to the same class of people in country places, you have more sobriety. Why? Because they have fewer temptations. When they arrive in New York, they are told that they must become American citizens, and that they must vote a certain ticket; and they are usually told this by the saloon-keepers. And the result is that the citizens of New York will permit a state of things where, out of twenty-four aldermen, twelve are low-grade saloon-keepers. This is more or less true throughout the whole country. We are constantly paying the highest taxes, constantly relieving paupers,—paying out for poorhouses and jails. Yes; but at the same time, by our votes and by our protection, we are increasing the causes of this evil. What we want is more strong restrictive laws against saloons.

Mr. LETCHWORTH.—So far as I know the views and aims of our Boards of State Charities, they do not discountenance nor attempt to repress legitimate immigration. To this, our ports are freely opened. It is against the forced deportation of pronounced paupers and criminals, who are now coming upon us in great numbers, that we protest. Those who have not paid special attention to this subject do not realize the magnitude of the evil. It is not long since that a shipload of immigrants came to us, nearly every one of whom had been deported directly from workhouses in the Old World. Is it desirable to encourage this kind of immigration? It seems to me that there should be some restriction upon it, not critical nor over-nice, but such as is reasonable and proper. This question, about which we are so indifferent, is treated with strict regard to self-interest by European countries. They are not particular as to what burdens go or are sent from out their borders, but they are critical as to what comes within. A few years ago, when examining this subject, I called upon a large number of our consuls and some of our foreign ministers in Europe; and their testimony corroborated the opinion I had already formed,—that the exportation of this objectionable class was largely and systematically carried on. In the office of one of our consuls, I met a highly responsible American gentleman, who had gone abroad as agent of a large telephone company. He was staying with his family at a first-class hotel. Desiring to go to a neighboring city on business, he was arrested at the railroad station; and the consul had been occupied several days in aiding him through a tedious process of securing the public authorities against the possi-

bility of his family becoming a charge upon the community. In the same city, the superintendent of a large prison admitted that he regularly sent, on their discharge, incorrigible criminals to this country.

It seems to me that some of the great evils that afflict society should be cured at their source. I am inclined to the opinion that if, through oppression or the grinding down of the individual citizen through misgovernment, hopeless burdens are created, as we may see in more than one country in Europe, the burdens should be retained where they originate, that the cause and results of the wrong may be more manifest. For the time being there may be greater suffering; but the voice of humanity will sooner reach the throne of grace, and the fiat of justice will go forth to correct some of those great wrongs which lower the standard of the race.

Bishop WHIPPLE.—Max Müller said that the name of barbarian was changed to brother, as one of the first lessons of Christianity; and when I heard my good brother, who paid such a beautiful tribute to my brother of Missouri, I wished that he might have quoted what was written again and again for God's people of old, "Thine eyes shall not be evil to the stranger." I suppose we all agree that the criminal, at home or abroad, has forfeited his rights, and that he ought to be placed under restriction. But, as for the poor and the down-trodden and the men who have no friends save that One who is God our Father, I have not the slightest fear in having these men come to America, if the Christian men of America will half do their duty to their brother and their God. I have been travelling nearly thirty years over these prairies. My own home is on one side of a township of Irish; and, when I came to Faribault, they were in the most destitute and poor condition—even, in some cases, compelled to ask for help. To-day, there is not one in that township, so far as I know, that is not independent and an honor to us for his character and sobriety as a citizen; and, if he has been reformed from the evils of intemperance, he has had his great-hearted bishop fighting the battle for him. I have again and again heard from the people of the border an outcry that these pauper immigrants ought not to be permitted to come here and occupy this land; but I have yet to know a single instance where one of these poor men of foreign blood has come to Minnesota, and where the people have fulfilled their duty, that he has not become an independent and self-supporting citizen. I believe that the problem of the ages is being solved in America. But you will pardon me if I say that the great fact of this world's history is that, after Spain and Holland and France had claimed this continent,—God having given it from the north to the south to the Anglo-Saxon,—just at that moment of time there should be an upheaving of all the nations of the world, and that the people should come here to be fused into a new race, more powerful for good and more powerful for evil than any people that ever lived on the earth. This is the fact; and I have asked myself, Why is this so? Because there is one lesson inwrought with the struggles and the dire experiences through which that race has passed, as we passed in our civil war, that there are two great truths

which we must recognize as absolutely necessary to protect human society: first, the rights of the individual, that personal endowment given him by God, which is his birthright as a man; second, loyalty to government as an institution, which is the gift of God,—not, as it is in France, loyalty to an individual, but loyalty to government. And there are no better people than the rank and file, who stand shoulder to shoulder with our brothers in saving our nation in its hour of trial. The problem may be very difficult, but God always lays heavy burdens on strong shoulders. If we look it in the face, and meet it as men, it will be solved as all such problems should be. A great father of the Church was once walking on a hillside, when he met a shepherd boy. "My boy," said he, "who made the world?" "God," said the boy. "And who is God?" "I know not," said he boy; "but he is my Father, and he is your Father, and he is the Father of all the world."

Dr. BYERS.—I listened with interest and sympathy to the statement of Bishop Ireland with reference to the influences on criminal conduct in this country growing out of emigration. There are hundreds in prison to-night that, had they been at home under its control and within the reach of its associations, would never have fallen into ways of crime. My observation of criminal classes and conditions has fixed that in my mind. I allude to it now, so that the friends may take it to themselves as an additional reason for interesting themselves in the conditions of crime in this country. Another point is that there should be some inter-State law to regulate emigration of the pauper classes. In my own State, many people come over the southern border, across the river, from Virginia and Kentucky, having no legal residence with us. We take care of them, however, and are now taking care of a large number. We do not send them back,—not because the river is too wide, but because we have provision that will meet their demands.

Mr. W. A. JOHNSON.—Like Rabbi Sonneschein, I also am an immigrant; but I count it a privilege to have become a citizen of this country, and I believe that most immigrants who look upon this country and upon American institutions as they ought have this feeling. I want to say one word about inter-State migration. A man came to me in Cincinnati, who had managed to travel from Massachusetts to Ohio in eleven days. He was partially blind, and claimed to be wholly so. He lived by begging. He had cost the United States for his board, lodging, and travelling expenses, through State and county authorities and private charity, \$2.75 a day. He said he wanted to go to St. Louis, but he had no good reason for going there. His story was false from beginning to end. That is a very expensive way to keep a pauper. That man might have been kept in an institution for thirty-five cents a day instead of \$2.75. When Mr. Wright spoke about the necessity of inter-State regulation, I was reminded of this case. Everybody working in Charity Organization Societies knows that such cases are coming up all the time, and that they are much encouraged by the pernicious practice which prevails with county officials of sending paupers a little further on, so as to

rid their county of a burden, and doing this without inquiry as to whether it is best for the paupers to move to another place or not. I do not see how this evil can be abated, unless by a general understanding and some inter-State regulations; and the first thing to be done is to awaken public opinion on the subject.

Dr. HOYT.—There is nothing in the report of the committee or in the paper of Mr. Sanborn that can be fairly construed as hostile to legitimate immigration to this country. The colonists, who were vigorous, energetic, and productive people, early took measures to protect themselves against the encroachment of foreign criminals, lunatics, and paupers; and most of the States having seaboard ports had legislative enactment bearing upon the subject. The decision of the United States Supreme Court in 1875 abrogated these enactments, and thus relegated the various questions affecting immigration to Congress. The federal law of 1882, regulating immigration, had proved to be greatly defective, and is imperfectly executed; and the committee, in its report, had pointed out these defects, and suggested the means of remedying them. It makes no war upon immigration, but urges that the law be amended so as properly to meet its purposes, and be so executed that this country and its institutions shall not continue to be the depository for the deported criminals, insane, and chronic disabled paupers of Europe.

The Committee on Time and Place reported through the chairman, F. H. Wines, that Omaha, Neb., was recommended as the next place of meeting.

Adjourned at 10 P.M.

#### THIRTEENTH SESSION.

*Wednesday morning, July 21.*

The Conference met at 9 A.M., the President in the chair. Prayer was offered by Rev. M. S. Williston, of Iowa.

The reports from States were continued.

The report from Kentucky was read by Randolph H. Blain (page 316).

The report from Nebraska, prepared by J. A. Gillespie, was read by Mrs. Clara B. Colby (page 327).

The report from Connecticut, prepared by Henry E. Burton, was read by the Secretary (page 307).

The report from Michigan was made by L. S. Storrs (page 322).

Mrs. HELEN M. WOODS, of Chicago, offered a resolution on the "age of consent," which was referred to the Business Committee.

The report from Dakota, written by Mr. Jacob Schaetzel, was read by Dr. O. W. Archibald (page 308).

The report of the Committee on Time and Place, that the next meeting of the Conference should be held in Omaha, Neb., was brought up for discussion.

Mr. BARBOUR moved as an amendment that it should be held at Raleigh, N.C.

Mr. WHITE, of Ohio, seconded the amendment.

Mr. GARRETT said that he came to St. Paul with the understanding that the next session would be held in the South, otherwise he should have brought overwhelming invitations for the Conference to meet in Philadelphia. As it was, he assured the Conference of a hearty welcome there, and moved to amend the amendment by substituting the word Philadelphia.

Mr. ELMORE said that he also had expected to go South for the next Conference; but, if the South did not wish to have it held there, he did not wish to insist. He was therefore now in favor of Omaha.

Mr. WHITMORE, of Nebraska, made a strong plea for Omaha, saying that the coming of the Conference would not only be an advantage to Nebraska, but to all the great North-west from the Missouri River to the Pacific.

Judge FOLLETT, of Ohio, was in favor of the South as the next place of meeting.

Rev. O. C. McCULLOCH was in favor of Raleigh.

Dr. HILL, of Oregon, said that the governor of his State gave him the authority to invite the Conference to hold its next meeting there. He hoped that, if it would not come there next year, it would do so soon. Meantime, he hoped that the Conference would go to Raleigh next year.

Bishop IRELAND said that he had promised the night before to vote for Nebraska; but, on hearing all that had been said, he must now vote for going to the South.

Mrs. DINSMORE, of Nebraska, showed all the advantages of going to Nebraska, and argued that it could hardly be called going West to go to Omaha, since it was within ninety-five miles of being the geographical centre of the United States.

Mr. WRIGHT thought that either Philadelphia or Omaha should be the next place of meeting.

Mr. WINES thought the probabilities were that, if the Conference went to Omaha this year, it would go South another, and there was no need of so much discussion.

Dr. GUNDRY was in favor of Philadelphia.

Col. DOANE, of Massachusetts, favored Omaha.

Mr. JOHNSON believed in carrying out the original plan of going South.

Mrs. CLARA B. COLBY, of Nebraska, renewed the plea for Nebraska.

Mr. GARRETT withdrew his amendment.

Rev. ROBERT DOHERTY, of Omaha, also spoke earnestly in behalf of Nebraska.



A rising vote was then taken on the amendment moved by Mr. Barbour,—55 in favor of Raleigh, and 58 opposed.

The vote on the adoption of the report of the committee was then taken,—73 in favor of Omaha.

On motion of Mr. Garrett, the vote was made unanimous.

The President announced that Mrs. J. K. Barney, of Rhode Island, would speak, by request, on "Police Matrons."

Mrs. BARNEY.—Every city should have a police matron, into whose hands every woman arrested should be given, to be searched and cared for. My attention was first called to this by seeing a woman who was intoxicated put in a cart, with rude jests, by men; and, as they started off, something moved me to follow as a sort of private detective. I stepped quietly into the station, and saw this woman searched; and, there and then, I made a vow that I would, so far as possible, bring my influence and the influence of all those connected with me, to have this thing prevented by the appointment of police matrons. When we went to the city officials with our petition, they looked at us as though wondering if we had not anything else to attend to. They replied: "You could not get any good woman to be in a police station. The movement is not practicable." But we went again and again for two long years, until we literally wore them out. This is a slow process, as some of us have come to know. I used to go every morning and see the women as they were brought into the police court, and hear them sentenced or see them released. The last morning that I went, some of the gentlemen asked, "How much longer are you going to keep this up?" I replied, "I am going to keep it up three hundred and sixty-five days in every year, until I get it." And the promise was given then and there. The officials are so well pleased with the arrangement that they say, "No city that pretends to civilization can afford to be without a police matron." I cannot state here the things that have occurred in other cities for lack of such a matron. In your own city of St. Paul, within twenty-four hours, revelations have come to me that should make men blush, and that should make women determine that a city like this should have some woman at its police station. In Chicago, they have now ten on call, day and night; and, in the last year, they have had over eight thousand women and girls in their care. People have always said that we could not get good women to do this work; but we have always found them,—they seem to be ready when the place is made. As an outgrowth of this department of work, we have established homes for friendless women. This call for such matrons has sometimes been said to be a sentimental appeal, but it is an appeal to manhood and womanhood. The attempt to have police matrons in New York was defeated, because the movement was not managed rightly. They asked for a matron at every station, which is not necessary. It is better to begin in a smaller way, placing such an

officer in *central* places. But let it, in every city, be a *law* that every woman arrested shall be searched by a woman, whether for weapons, stolen goods, or liquor; and, after that, under the care of that woman until sentenced or released. I have met daughters of clergymen in the police station, girls who came from the best society, girls who had come to the city seeking employment; and you know very well many of them do not receive compensation enough to board in a desirable place or to dress as they ought. They inevitably drift to the cheap boarding-houses, and some of them into ways of shame, and the moment they start on the downward road are pushed on by men and women. It does not take a thoughtful man or woman a moment to see the importance of such girls coming under a woman's care. There are jails, also, where sick or well women are wholly under the care of men. Ought these things to be? Some one said to me once, "You must be patient." I cannot be patient. I cannot go through every city and wear out the officials. You who are interested in reform must pay attention to this matter. You can go to your homes, and pledge yourselves to secure in your own cities men who will encourage this, and bring the subject before the public by petition and through the press. You must have good women, also, for your police matrons. In one place, I asked them if they had any women to assist in the police stations. They replied: "We have a woman who scrubs. The boys call her Selinda. When we need a woman, we call her in." But we want a woman whom every one will respect, and whom the boys won't call "Selinda." Mrs. Barney then made an earnest plea for help in the work.

Bishop IRELAND.—This subject has been a long time on my mind. I think it is one of the most important that could be brought up. Every woman has her claim upon us as an immortal soul. A great many insane girls are thrown into prison or into jail, or are imprisoned on accusation; and I have known several cases ruined, absolutely, for the want of a woman in these prisons. The same remark applies to county jails. We should awaken a strong feeling upon this matter. I hope the work will go on. It demands immediate attention everywhere throughout the country. It is a terrible state of things when a child or a young woman or any woman is left unprotected and alone among men who have no regard for God. Better that we should have no jails than to have many of the evils that follow, all over the country, by a want of proper care in their administration.

Mrs. WARNER, superintendent of prison work in Minnesota, wished to emphasize all that Mrs. Barney had said. She herself had done what she could, but she had not found readiness to grant the needed help on the part of the officials. Minnesota had money enough and women enough, but no such officer was yet appointed.

The report of the Committee on Provision for the Insane was read by the chairman, Dr. Richard Gundry, of Maryland.

A paper on Restrictions on the Personal Liberty of the Insane was read by Dr. A. B. Richardson, of Athens, Ohio (page 267).

Adjourned at 12.30 P.M.

#### FOURTEENTH SESSION.

*Wednesday afternoon, July 21, 1886.*

The Conference met at 2.30 P.M., the President in the chair.

The report of the Business Committee was made by the chairman, A. E. Elmore, as follows:—

On the following resolution offered by Mrs. Sara A. Spencer:—

*Resolved*, That, as a condition precedent to registration as a member of this Conference, each member shall pay not less than two dollars as an annual membership fee, and shall be entitled to a bound copy of the Proceedings of the Conference.

Your Committee believe that it would be a good thing to have a publication fund on hand,—that, when debts are contracted, they may be promptly paid,—but are not yet ready to say that the interest of the people in the Conference and its work is so small that the sale of its Proceedings will not pay all the expenses. The outlook now is that it will be at the end of the year better off for funds than heretofore, and we therefore ask to be discharged from further consideration of the resolution.

We are in full accord, and approve the object of the following preamble and resolution offered by Mr. Letchworth:—

Whereas, in the opinion of this Conference, measures for the reduction of pauperism, insanity, vagrancy, and crime, and for the economic care and treatment of the infirm, dependent, and criminal classes, may best be studied and formulated through organized effort, independent of political bias or influences, as Boards of Charities and Correction are now constituted in various States, therefore,—

*Resolved*, That the President of this Conference be requested to communicate with the governors of the States not having Boards of Charities and Correction, respectfully calling their attention to this matter and the benefits that would, in the judgment of the National Conference, be conferred by their establishment in such States.

We recommend that this resolution be adopted.

The following resolution concerning the *International Record* we heartily approve, and recommend its adoption:—

*Resolved*, That the National Conference of Charities and Correction approves of the establishment of the monthly journal known as the *International Record*, published by the Messrs. Putnam, New York and London, and that it commends it to the support and confidence of the public.

*Resolved*, That a copy of this paper should be in the hands of every manager, officer, or employé of every public or private charitable or correctional institution in the United States, as an aid to the intelligent and efficient discharge of the duties devolving upon them respectively; that it also commends it to the general public as the earliest and best means of information in regard to our charitable and correctional institutions.

*Resolved*, That a brief announcement of the *Record* be printed in the volume of Proceedings of this Conference, and also upon all circulars hereafter issued in its name.

The resolution offered by William L. Bull, relating to tramps, we recommend the Conference to adopt, as follows: —

*Resolved*, That the members of the various State Boards of Charity represented in this Conference be earnestly urged to use their efforts with the directors and overseers of the poor, stewards of almshouses and keepers of county jails, in their respective States, to adopt a systematic plan of keeping records of the number and condition of the tramps and vagrants under their supervision.

The report was adopted.

A paper on "Diet and Voluntary Employment of the Insane," by Dr. Charles A. Miller, superintendent of the Longview Asylum, Carthage, Ohio (page 277), was read by the Secretary.

A paper on "Small Asylums for the Chronic Insane: Their Construction and Management" was read by A. O. Wright (page 280).

The report of the Committee on Feeble-minded and Idiotic Persons was read by Dr. Isaac N. Kerlin (page 288).

A paper on "The State's Duty toward Epileptics" was read by Dr. George Knight, of Lakeville, Conn. (page 298).

#### DISCUSSION ON INSANITY AND IMBECILITY.

Mr. MYERS.—We have in the Dane County Insane Asylum, Verona, Wisconsin, one hundred and eight chronic insane, all of whom have the utmost freedom that could possibly be granted an insane person over whom there is any authorized watch-care whatever. There is no restraint, and all enjoy equal privileges at the table. Our institution is run with open doors during all hours of daylight. We try to exercise watch-care by requiring the attendant to be able to account every half-hour for every patient under his or her charge. We have one male patient who was of an exceedingly roving disposition, who, several times in close succession, eluded his attendant, and ran away. Adapting the old adage, that "like cures like," we gave him travelling employment, making him our post-boy. From that day to this, over three years, he has, with very rare exceptions, gone from once to twice a day to the village — a mile distant — after the mail, doing other errands as well, as faithfully, and as trustworthily as any sane person employed for money. A penny, a nickel, a dime, a picture card, and many little tokens of friendliness are put into his hands by nearly all who know him; and he is the pet of the entire community. Another case is that of a lady, who, I was told, was kept much of the time in restraint on account of violence; and, being a woman of powerful physique, she was a terror to attendants. Noticing her kindly disposition to other inmates, we put her in charge of a notoriously mischievous patient. She now quietly does any kind of domestic housework, with a very exceptional tantrum of momentary duration. Still another case is that of a man, who, upon his admis-

sion, was put in a ward to assist in general ward-work. But he not unfrequently became exceedingly noisy and destructive. By a simple change of employment, from the ward to the farm, giving him exclusive charge of a team of steady horses, he has been changed to a quiet, steady gentleman. That was about two years ago. He himself said to the employed teamster that, while he could have a team to drive, he should be all right. The fact that we have so few persons to care for gives us an opportunity for more frequent personal effort in the exercise of various methods and experiments for the same patient than would be possible with larger numbers and the constant accession of acute cases.

Mr. MOTT.—I was called to draft the bill under which our State School for Idiots and Imbeciles is organized; and, having been a member of the board of directors of the Institute with which the school is connected for twenty-three years, there comes to me the thought of the immeasurable relief to the homes from which they come. The first movement that was made in this State was to remove the few that had drifted into the mad-houses. They were given to us to see what we could do for them. At the very next meeting of the legislature, as chairman of the committee on charitable institutions, I presented a report and a bill which provided for the care and custody of these idiotic children as well as the education of the feeble-minded. After picturing to those legislators the homes in which were inmates, hopeless, helpless, shameless, enslaving the mothers, demoralizing other members of the family, that bill passed both Houses unanimously. So I say to you, Go home to your people, and tell them that it is not only relief to the suffering subjects themselves that is wanted, but it is a duty that every legislator of this republic owes to the homes,—in many cases, refined and cultivated homes,—to make provision for these children. Try this, tell the truth, and you will find that American voters are always true to American homes, and will never fail to relieve and protect them.

Mr. MORRIS.—My observation the past year, as superintendent of the Indiana Asylum for Feeble-minded Children, has led me to believe that in many instances we confer as great a favor upon the parent, in caring for the child, as we confer upon the unfortunate child itself. If it be said that public institutions are unnecessary, since attendants can be secured to perform these duties in the families, let it be remembered that the very presence of such an attendant is a constant reminder of the misfortune that has befallen them, and increases rather than diminishes the weight of their sorrow. But all families so afflicted are not wealthy. The poor we have always with us; and when, with poverty, they are compelled to face the vacant stare, and listen to the idle babblings of the idiot or imbecile, how untold must be their misery! Add to the misfortune of such a family the drunkenness of the father, and we have a state of affairs that exists in many a locality. A short time since, a drunken father called at our institution to see his imbecile child, seven years of age. I learned that he had buried two children, both imbeciles, and had a little girl at home, a worse subject than the boy for whom

we were caring. This little fellow had all the actions of his drunken father, and was a living demonstration of the terrible evils of tobacco and beer.

Dr. DANA.—After listening to these two suggestive papers, I want the privilege of setting home the duty that we in Minnesota owe to the class whose needs have just been presented. Much as we have to be proud of, because of what has been done, I will hazard the statement that we are not half-alive to the claims of the class in question or to our obligations promptly to care for the same. We think that, in this Commonwealth, we have made ample provision, inasmuch as we have accommodations at Faribault for about one hundred: whereas there are already some seventy applications on file for those who cannot as yet be admitted, and the number provided for represents only one-ninth of the imbeciles estimated to be proper subjects for State provision. It is only a few years since we began to do anything at all in Minnesota for these unfortunates. Now, we have advanced so far that we have arrived at the point where we not only feel that they ought to be housed in institutions, but that, in the vast majority of cases, they are improvable. I devoutly wish that all our citizens might visit Faribault, and see what has been done with these children rescued from homes in which they were an incessant burden to fathers and mothers, and almost a curse to brothers and sisters. Transferred to the school at Faribault, they are there medically cared for, educated, and trained by gifted women, who have consecrated themselves to the teaching of these most dependent of all God's children. The time has come for every commonwealth in these United States to establish an institution for the feeble-minded, not only for the improvable among them, but, as in that splendid institution of Dr. Kerlin's, for those as well who belong to the custodial class. I speak with deep feeling on this subject. So far as Minnesotians are concerned, I want them to be aroused to enthusiasm in doing for this class, so that, when the next legislature assembles, provision may be made for the enlargement of our work in this direction. We do not realize how large is the number that we have not yet taken under the care and guardianship of the State. Not only feelings of humanity should urge us to action, but also the necessity of protecting society. I believe that this State ought to provide for the life, care, and housing of those we are now considering; for only thus can communities be secured from the propagation of their kind. The worst thing possible is to allow such to be kept in poorhouses, where they go on multiplying their species and augmenting human misery and sin. There is not a grander charity under heaven or a more hopeful and noble work than in doing for this pitiable and dependent class. May we of Minnesota learn to love this work, and remember with ever grateful regard the brother to whom we owe the foundation of our institution and the policy that will undoubtedly shape it for years to come!

Dr. BYERS.—I should like to indorse every word that Dr. Dana has uttered, and to emphasize with all the force I can the fact that the only provision made outside of State institutions for the educa-



tion and custodial care of the feeble-minded is to be found in the county poorhouses, where they are subject to every possible form of neglect, and where the species is being constantly propagated. I could horrify this audience by a recital of facts that have come under my personal observation in this regard. I knew a deformed idiot woman to bear a child that was absolutely destitute of any place for brains, a fearful monstrosity. Their presence in poorhouses is a constant nuisance. They are hard to care for. They are disagreeable and disgusting very often in appearance, and always in manners; and yet the poor who have seen better days, respectable, intelligent inmates, are forced to sit at the table with them, and are brought into contact with them in the association of the poorhouse. We have between four and five hundred idiotic persons under county care in the different county infirmaries of my own State. For years, we have been urging custodial care, and are now hoping that the time is not far distant when, in connection with our educational institutions for feeble-minded youth, we shall have proper custodial care under the same administration. When girls are discharged from the institutions, we have no place to send them but to the county infirmaries. The State is not exercising a wise economy that permits anything of that kind. We must provide custodial care as well as education.

Dr. BUCKNER, of Texas, said that he was very glad to hear so much in behalf of establishing homes and schools for feeble-minded children. He was glad to be able to say to the people of Texas, on his return, that philanthropists are emphasizing the importance of this reform, and he hoped that they would continue to work for it until a home was established in every State for feeble-minded children.

Mr. WINES.—To attend the meeting of the Illinois State Board of Charities in Chicago to-morrow, I shall be obliged to leave before the "love-feast" of this evening. I am sorry for it. But I cannot go without saying one word to the friends who are, I think, dearer to me than any people on earth. In all the history of the National Conference, we have never had a better meeting than the one here in St. Paul. In the large number of persons present, the character of the papers read, the character of what little discussion we have had, and the attendance on the part of citizens of St. Paul and Minneapolis, it has probably surpassed any Conference which has preceded it. I congratulate our President, Mr. Neff, on the thorough preparation made by him, and the admirable manner in which he has presided. It has been my special function, as you know, at these meetings, to listen to complaints and endeavor to heal dissensions. This is the first time in my experience that there have been no complaints, so far as I know, from the beginning to the close. A large part of the success is due—and he deserves the credit of it—to the Secretary of the Minnesota State Board of Charities, Rev. Mr. Hart. His indefatigable efforts for the promotion of its interests have won our highest admiration and gratitude; and I would say to the people of Minnesota, on behalf of those of us who have taken the pains to

watch Mr. Hart's work during the short time that he has occupied this position, that, in our judgment, you have one of the ablest and most promising secretaries of such a board to be found in the Union. We hope that you will keep him where he is, until he has grown to the full measure of his strength and usefulness.

One word as to the catholicity of this meeting. I especially want to thank Bishop Ireland for the great service he has rendered us in manifesting his sympathy with our aims and our work. This is the first time that we have had so large an attendance of priests and laity of the Roman Catholic Church, and we have been delighted to have them with us. The other evening, we had the great satisfaction of listening in succession to a Hebrew Rabbi, a Roman Catholic Bishop, and the Protestant Episcopal Bishop of Minnesota. I was more stirred, I think, than I have ever been at any meeting before this; and, when I heard Bishop Whipple, with that wonderful sweetness and tenderness which seem to be peculiar to him, express his high appreciation of his Hebrew friend on one side and his Catholic friend on the other, I was lifted above the clouds. That was a spectacle not to be witnessed anywhere on earth except in a Conference of Charities. It seemed to me as if the light of Heaven rested for a moment upon us, and lifted us all to a loftier plane of broad Christian charity than we had ever been able to reach before.

I assure you, ladies and gentlemen of St. Paul and Minneapolis, that we value the friendships we have made among you. We part from you with the deepest regret. We thank you for your invitation to this city. We thank you for your courtesy, for the attentions you have shown us, and the patience with which you have listened to us; and we hope that, when we leave you, we shall not be entirely forgotten by you.

Bishop WHIPPLE.—We are living in a time when opinions and creeds are being very strangely sifted, when Christian folk are brought face to face, day by day, with men who utter doubts that touch the very quick of our hearts. I am not sure that we can silence questionings by arguments; but I am sure that the men and the women who, in the spirit and the power of Christ, go out to care for God's suffering children, whatever may be their creed, no one can gainsay, and no one can ever deny. Another thought, however, that I want to present perhaps some of you may tell me is not practicable. But we have heard again and again during this Conference that the awful sin of intemperance,—that deadly plague that is coming up on to the very thresholds of our homes, that which has left scars on our hearts that never can be healed this side of the grave,—that this is the parent of most of the crime, imbecility, and pauperism that curse our beloved land. We all feel it, and we all pay our just meed of honor to the brave hearts who stand in the forefront to effect a reform. Every State, every Christian State, recognizes the fact that there are grievous dangers connected with the traffic in strong drink, and for that reason will only allow men to vend it under the State's license. The legislators of States recognize clearly the fact that it is a crime against humanity when spirituou

drinks are vended to minors, and the State has placed a penalty on this crime. That penalty for the most part is not enforced. I ask you to consider, then, whether it is not practicable to create a public opinion, so that our legislators shall pass a law that any man who, under a license, shall vend spirituous drinks to minors, shall never receive a license again. You would avoid thereby all those questions of punishment for the crime. I merely ask you to consider this question. Perhaps it will help us to interpose another barrier to this great evil.

Rev. JOHN SILCOX, of Manitoba, thanked the Conference for its invitation to attend this session at St. Paul. He had been asked by the authorities of Manitoba to learn what he could, so that he might better help the institutions of his own State. He had been specially impressed with the fact that genuine charity work is the work of the individual for the individual. It is the man rather than the plan that is to be depended upon for effective results. If one takes the history of reformatory work in England, from the day when old John Pounds beguiled the ragged urchins to school to the days of Guthrie and Gordon, the hero of Khartoum, he will find that the work of men for men has wrought success: it has not been dependent on a system. He was glad to see, also, that the Conference believed in the salvation of the lowest. When Charles Dickens died, Dean Stanley said that Dickens' great work was to tell the world the ever old but ever new story that there was, even in the lowest outcast, something worth reclaiming. Victor Hugo taught the same thing, that there is in the lowest a possibility of reform.

There was another point on which he wished to speak. In his own land, they were not averse, yet not used, to hearing women speak in public. The authorities say, "Let not a woman speak in public; but, if they want to know, let them ask their husbands." But it would be a poor chance for some of them if they depended upon that law. He did not wish to eulogize; but, in his opinion, the women who had spoken in this Conference had spoken with a directness, a force, a power of persuasion, equal to the men, and he only wished that some good women would go to his own land and stir up the women of that country to speak in the same way. He hoped to do better work all his life for the influences which he had received in St. Paul.

Dr. BYERS stated that, since the report on "Prisons and Reformatories" had been presented, a paper on "Prison Reform," by the warden of the penitentiary at Manitoba, had come into his hands. He begged to submit it in connection with the prison report. The following is an abstract of this paper:—

Has imprisonment proved an effective cure for crime? Certainly not. No more mistaken idea exists. Reformation is the only hope of the criminal. But our upper prisons will never be qualified to meet the requirements for reformatory work until there is, first, a thorough check upon the prevalence of juvenile crime, and, second, a

radical change in the system of administering our common jails and lock-ups. The first may be secured by establishing industrial schools near every large city, to be endowed by the government. The jail system is to be improved: first, by educating the officials who are to have the care and custody of prisons; second, by complete separation of hardened criminals from juveniles; third, by keeping the better educated and intelligent totally apart from the very ignorant and gross; fourth, by classification. The education of officials should be obtained in a government training-school. It may be premature to advocate such a system, but the day is not far distant when its necessity and advantage will be seen. The present system of appointing men who have nothing to recommend them beyond the pertinacity with which they have cast their votes and exerted their influence in favor of a certain political party is a crying shame and disgrace, and is destructive to every effort for reform.

All appointments should be made from candidates who have obtained certificates of fitness in the training-school. In Italy and Belgium, large schools of this kind are in operation, where between two and three hundred students are in attendance. The results have been good so far. Other countries are about to establish similar institutions. A board of commissioners should appoint all wardens of prisons, as likewise the jailers; and wardens, in turn, should select their own subordinates from the training-school, subject to the approval of the board. The reformation of the criminal is now theoretically, and ought to be in reality, the one great object of any prison system. Men come in, as a rule, young in sin; and here is the opportunity of scotching at the outset the rank, pernicious growth of evil, and sowing good seed. The chaplain is, of course, a great power for good in this way; but far greater is the power of the individual guard under whose care the man is placed. Some of our prison guards, performing their daily duties quietly and unostentatiously, are doing an immense amount of good. In common jails there should be separate cellular accommodation by night for all inmates, including those awaiting trial, and work for all prisoners who have been sentenced. There should be at least three classifications: (a) first offenders; (b) those committed for drunkenness; (c) hardened offenders. As for employment of those in cells (for no idleness should be tolerated), the manufacture of door-mats and matting of cocoanut fibre can be advantageously carried on, as it is at Wakefield, England, and Richmond Prison, Dublin. The expense of establishing the industry is trifling. There should be no undue severity in a prison, and the official should take a personal interest in the reform of the inmates. The wearing of striped clothing is an obstacle to reform, but it may be premature to give it up excepting when deserved by good behavior.

Mr. GARRETT reported for the Committee on Organization, as follows:—

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**Vice-Presidents.**

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REV. S. H. SONNESCHEIN, of Missouri.

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**Committee on Child Saving Work.**

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(Reform Schools. Prison Labor. Reformatories.)

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W. D. Patterson, . . . . . Ohio.

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C. E. Felton, . . . . . Illinois.

Prof. Theo. Dwight, . . . New York.

L. S. Fulton, . . . . . New York.

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**Committee on Organization of Charity.**

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W. Alex. Johnson, . . . Illinois.

Dr. Edgar P. Jefferis, . . . Pennsylvania.

Rev. Frank O'Brien, . . . Michigan.

Mrs. Sara A. Spencer, . . . Dist. of Columbia.

Rev. M. L. Williston, . . . Iowa.

N. S. Rosenau, . . . . . New York.

**Committee on Schools for the Defective Classes.**

(Blind. Deaf and Dumb. Feeble-minded. Relations and Duty of State to above.)

Rt. Rev. Geo. D. Gillespie, Michigan.	Dr. Gallaudet, . . . . . Dist. of Columbia.
Dr. Isaac N. Kerlin, M.D., Pennsylvania.	Dr. G. H. Knight, . . . . . Connecticut.
Dr. J. J. Dow, . . . . . Minnesota.	

Superintendent Blind Home, Pennsylvania; Superintendent Northampton School, Connecticut;  
ex-Superintendent Indianapolis Blind Institute.

**Committee on Insanity.**

Dr. R. S. Dewey, M.D., . . Illinois.	Dr. Wise, M.D., . . . . . New York.
Dr. C. M. Finch, M.D., . . Ohio.	Dr. Bryce, . . . . . Alabama.
Dr. J. Eton Bowers, M.D., Minnesota.	Dr. Jennie McCowen, M.D., Iowa.
Dr. Henry M. Hurd, M.D., Michigan.	Hon. J. M. Woolworth, . . Nebraska.
Dr. W. W. Reed, . . . . . Wisconsin.	

**Committee on Alien Paupers and Criminals.**

Dr. Chas. S. Hoyt, . . . . . New York.	Rabbi Solomon H. Sonneschein, Missouri.
Hon. F. B. Sanborn, . . . Massachusetts.	Rev. M. McG. Dana, . . . . . Minnesota.
Rt. Rev. Bishop Ireland, . . Minnesota.	Philip C. Garrett, . . . . . Pennsylvania.
Dr. Foster Pratt, . . . . . Michigan.	

**Committee on Medical Charities.**

(Free Dispensaries. First Aid to Injured.)

Chas. C. Cadwallader, M.D., Pennsylvania.	Warden M. J. McGargile, . . Illinois.
Miss Clara Barton, . . . . . Dist. of Columbia.	Mrs. J. M. Flower, . . . . . Illinois.
Mrs. Osborne (Bellevue Hospital Nurses' School), New York.	Rev. Myron W. Reed, . . . Colorado.

**Committee on our Duty to the African and Indian Races.**

Philip C. Garrett, . . . . . Pennsylvania.	Bishop J. U. Dudley, . . . Kentucky.
Rt. Rev. Geo. B. Whipple, Minnesota.	Gen. S. C. Armstrong, . . . Virginia.
Bishop W. H. Hare, . . . . . So. Dakota.	Miss Alice C. Fletcher, . . Dakota.

**Committee on State Boards of Charities.**

Hon. F. B. Sanborn, . . . . . Massachusetts.	Dr. A. G. Byers, . . . . . Ohio.
Hon. Andrew Elmore, . . . Wisconsin.	W. Howard Neff, . . . . . Ohio.
Judge F. B. Tiffany, . . . . . Nebraska.	

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Massachusetts, . . Capt. Shurtleff.	Wash. Ter., . . James Wickersham.
Michigan, . . . J. J. Wheeler, East Saginaw.	W. Virginia, . . R. R. Swope, Wheeling.
Minnesota, . . . Nelson Williams, Minneapolis.	Wisconsin, . . . J. H. Vivian, M.D., Miner's P't.



On motion of Dr. Byers, the report was adopted.

On motion of Mr. Elmore, it was voted that the President of the Conference and the chairmen of the several committees be authorized to make such additions to their committees as should seem best.

Adjourned at 4.50 P.M.

#### FIFTEENTH SESSION.

*Wednesday night, July 21.*

The Conference met at 7.30 P.M., the President in the chair.

The following telegram from J. D. Pickett, Corresponding Secretary for Kentucky, was received and read :—

Illness of a colleague and other unexpected and controlling causes have prevented the completion and transmission of a systematic report before the adjournment of your honorable body. The State, churches, societies, cities, towns, individuals, are doing noble service in the sacred causes of charity. The desiderata are systematic and co-operative efforts similar to the Louisville Charity Organization. Suggest a plan for securing within practicable bounds, in each case, true co-operation throughout the commonwealth and the country.

The remainder of the evening was devoted to short addresses by L. L. Barbour, A. E. Elmore, W. P. Letchworth, O. C. McCulloch, Rabbi Sonneschein, A. G. Byers, H. Thane Miller, R. B. Hayes, Miss Clara Barton, D. C. Bell, W. R. Marshall, W. S. Pattee, Bishop Ireland, Dr. Dana, H. H. Hart, W. H. Neff, and H. H. Giles.

Mr. BARBOUR, of Michigan, after acknowledging the kind and cordial treatment extended the Conference by citizens of St. Paul and Minneapolis, stated that the most pleasing fact in connection with it was the cordial co-operation extended them in the purposes for which they were organized.

Mr. ELMORE, of Wisconsin, spoke affectionately of Minnesota as the daughter of Wisconsin.

Resolutions of thanks were then offered by Hon. William P. Letchworth, of New York, who said :—

Mr. LETCHWORTH.—This important Conference which has drawn together in friendly discussion, from distant parts of the United States, persons distinguished in the public service, in the Church, and in varied fields of charitable and correctional work, and over which you, Mr. President, have presided with urbanity, grace, and dignity, is now drawing to a close. It seems fitting that some record should be made of our warm appreciation of the hospitable and generous treatment we have received from the people of Minnesota, especially

from the citizens of St. Paul and Minneapolis. I will not attempt a full expression of the grateful sentiment I am sure we all feel, but will leave to others more eloquent this pleasant task. Speaking for myself, however, and the board with which I am connected, I will say that with this people I leave my heartfelt wishes for their highest welfare, while expressing the hope that the material prosperity which we behold here, and which an enlightened spirit has wisely used to advance the public good, as seen in their institutions of learning and charity, their civic structures and temples devoted to the worship of God, may not diminish ; and that the same forethought and liberality may still further broaden the foundations and strengthen the pillars of the State. I offer this resolution :—

*Resolved*, That the thanks of the Thirteenth National Conference of Charities and Correction are due, and are hereby tendered, to his Excellency, L. F. Hubbard, Governor of the State of Minnesota, for his courteous and thoughtful preparation for this Conference, for the use of the Hall of Representatives, the Senate Chamber, and the committee rooms of the capitol, and for his cordial welcome of the Conference ; to the mayor and city council of St. Paul, and the president and members of the Chamber of Commerce ; to the Local Committee ; and to the Local Executive Committee, especially Messrs. Sanborn, Dana, Alexander, Hart, and Bell, for the admirable arrangements for the Conference, and for the very handsome reception of the officers and members of the Conference ; to Mr. Ingersoll, president of the Reform School Board, and his associates, for the pleasant visit to that institution, and the reception tendered the Conference there ; to Mrs. Griggs and her associates of the Protestant Orphan Asylum Board for their very graceful and elegant reception of the ladies of the Conference ; to ex-Governor Pillsbury, of Minnesota, and to the citizens of Minneapolis for a very delightful and instructive visit to their beautiful city and a reception there ; to the daily press of St. Paul and Minneapolis for the fullest and most accurate reports ever made of the proceedings of any National Conference ; and to the railroad companies and steamboat lines throughout the United States for their liberal and satisfactory arrangements, more general and complete than ever before.

Mr. McCULLOCH, in seconding the resolution, said : Some of us remember that at the meeting at Cleveland, in 1880, a man rose to speak, who, being asked his name, said : " I am pastor of the Church of the Divine Fragments. My members are in the prisons, jails, poorhouses, and insane asylums." The Church of the Divine Fragments,— could we find a better name for this gathering than that ? There is an economic side to this work of ours. It saves money to the tax-payer : it prevents waste. But it is not that we think of. Here are men, women, and children denied their share of the light, beauty, and joy of life ; fragments, broken pieces of humanity ; divine. May I ask you to note the spirit in which this Conference enters the world of sorrow ? It is with hope. Here are no pessimists. Every face is lighted up with hope. Suffering can be relieved, pain can be mitigated, the neglected can be restored. All evils yield to the touch of the loving heart and the resolution of the intelligent mind. We have seen this Conference grow during the years from small to great. It is the response of the humanity within us to the appeal of the work. When once attention is called to these classes, we find a wealth of " Such as I have," responding to the call of " Such as I need." Truth, strength, skill, and money at once flow

forth. I call it the "Kingdom of Heaven Fund." Gradually the crânk has gone.

We have only the old Pauline method,—“love working through intelligent reason.”

The Conference marks at this season an advance, in the emphasis it lays on preventive work. The history of effort in charity is marked by several stages: the period when all suffering was regarded as a work of divine displeasure; the period when it was regarded with pity; the era of the hospital, the asylum; and, lastly, the era of restoration and prevention. “Let us put them back into society, restored, and in their right mind”; or “let us keep the feet from stumbling.” So the preventive work among children, notably the charity kindergartens and children’s homes, tell us that much of the evil may be prevented. Said George Eliot, steadying a broken vase: “By and by, we will do this with people. We will steady them when falling, when about to fall, and not wait until they have fallen, then try to pick up the pieces.”

So we work, in faith, in hope, in charity,—these three.

Rabbi SONNESCHEIN.—I do not know whether, with my somewhat deficient knowledge of the beautiful English tongue, I can do justice to the feelings which are pulsating in my heart and clamoring for utterance in my brain,—feelings of enthusiasm, of gratitude, that I who hail from the distant east, in whose veins is rolling the blood of thirty-five hundred years, whose ancestors have seen the rising of the sun on the eastern borders of the Euphrates,—that I, who now live on the western borders of the Mississippi, should hear in this young and rising “twin” city, in a language which is not my own, save by adoption, the very ideal after which the Hebrew of old and the Hebrew of the present time strive. That ideal was “one God for all his children, and one human family, obedient, free, brave, pure, and prosperous before the one God of all.” For this I am grateful. This is the country which deserves to be the cradle for that baby freedom, for that baby charity, that baby religion, that baby science, that baby art, that baby humanity, which one of these days will certainly arise, and with Herculean strength will grapple with all the demons of wrong, and strangle them outright. Where fifty years ago there was only the superstition of the savage, here, to-day, the Jew, the Catholic, the Protestant, the Unitarian, even those who would discard all religious beliefs save the belief in humanity,—all grasp at one problem; and here they make strides which within a hundred years will bring them to the goal for which Asia and Africa and Europe for two and three thousand years have been striving in vain. May God will it!

Dr. BYERS, in a short address, said that he felt no hesitation in asserting that this Conference in many respects was in advance of that had preceded it. It was to him a special delight to look on this beautiful country in the summer time. He had formerly seen it only in the winter, with the mercury thirty degrees below zero, with the snow higher than the car-windows. But, with the remembrance of this severity, he remembered also the warmth of the people and

their generous hospitality. He congratulated the Local Committee and the President of the Conference with the success that had crowned their efforts, and closed by paying a tribute to those who had been removed by death during the past year. He said: "I cannot repress the feeling of sorrow in the death of such men. As the years go, we are getting older and older; and, one by one, we shall drop out of the work. But the assurance is given us that others are growing up, imbued with the right spirit, who will never fail to carry it forward."

H. THANE MILLER, of Cincinnati, in a short address, expressed his delight in the Conference. He had been much impressed with the growth of the cities of St. Paul and Minneapolis since he first visited this region, twenty-five years ago. "These towns," he said, "have made great strides in physical conditions; and the people have advanced as much in wealth and culture. And, now, I will tell you a secret. There used to be a sort of holy emulation between this city and Minneapolis. I am so glad to see that that has all passed away. (!) Here is St. Paul stretching out his arms to Minneapolis, and here comes Minneapolis to meet him half-way. Here they are united in the bonds of making money. What glorifies one redounds to the glory of the other. What, then, is to prevent a permanent union of the two,—Minnie and Paul,—the beautiful bride, with her churches and educational houses and her Exposition, and the stalwart fellow on the bluffs? How we all rejoice in the nuptials! What God and man hath joined together, let no one put asunder. And now as to the Conference. The papers have been excellent, written by men who knew what they were talking about, full of thought and instruction. As I listened to the papers, on the insane especially, I found my heart welling up within me, and my brain on fire. I wish the President had let me speak then. We cannot go away from here and live the same careless life in regard to these matters, because now we know something about them. The lives of men, women, and children ought to be better for what we have learned here. I have come to feel more than ever that even the dirty tramps and the miserable imbeciles are my brothers and sisters,—every one of them,—creatures of God, our Father. God has been more exalted and honored in this Conference than in any other I have ever attended. So let us go forth rejoicing in what has been accomplished, in the love of God and of our fellow-men, and in the wise plans made to do good."

Hon. R. B. HAYES.—I have not had the privilege of hearing all that has passed in this Conference, and I may be mistaken in supposing that we have not formulated any creed on the various subjects that have been brought before us. It may be that at some of the meetings, when I was not present, resolutions were passed, showing precisely what the Conference thinks on the various topics that have been discussed. But, assuming that this had not been done, it struck me that, perhaps, as useful a thing as I could do would be to jot down what I thought we were substantially agreed about on some of the subjects that have been discussed. I would not undertake

to state what I suppose to be the ideas of this Conference on all subjects.

It is an old saying that ideas rule the world. What are the principles, what are the ideas, of this Conference?

Take, first, boards of State charity. We are agreed about that. It is the judgment of this Conference that so useful are these organizations that one ought to be found in every State and Territory. I think we are agreed on one point further: that every such board, if it means to do good work, should consist, in part, of women. I think that the majority of us agree that the members of these boards should serve without pay, that they should have no patronage and no executive power. This for the simple reason that any board that has patronage or power will have its usefulness destroyed by partisan interests.

Another thing about which we are solidly agreed is that the existing jails, the old-fashioned jails, are an abomination, and ought to be and must be radically changed or abolished altogether. The query arises,—I put it in this form,—Should not the State take charge of its jails? Should it not build them in certain districts, and control them in a better way than seems practicable now for the counties to do?

Again, this Conference is in favor of kindergartens through and through. I cannot say that quite warmly enough. After hearing the papers prepared by Miss Hallowell's committee, I feel like saying that I am in favor of whatever those ladies are in favor of in this direction.

With reference to reformatories for the young, different views were expressed in the interesting discussion; but I think we are prepared to say that, with the right man and the right woman at the head, there must always be a pretty good institution. The worst system under a good head is better than the best system under a bad head.

I think we are in favor of another thing, and that is the Elmira system and the Elmira prison and Mr. Brockway at the head of it. And here I want to say that the good State of Minnesota, this growing State, must make no mistake. It should have a prison worthy of the State. Let me, therefore, modestly suggest to the people of Minnesota that, before taking any step toward deciding on the plan for their new prison, they take advantage of the inspiration, the experience, and the wisdom of Mr. Brockway.

Another idea is agreed to on all hands, I think: that the best thing—at any rate, the essential thing—in any reform of the young, any prisoner of any description, is skilled labor. Let us, then, see wherever we go that we show by our works what our faith is. Skilled labor, they tell us, is the means without which reform is impossible, and with which reform may be hopefully looked for in many cases. Now, the point I would make is that this is one of the things which, if it is good as a cure, is also good to *prevent*. I would therefore say, Let us extend our skilled labor not merely to our prisons, but everywhere where the young are to be educated.

Again, I think we all agree that, wherever females are to be con-

finer or are to be in the care of anybody, there should be good women to take care of them. Again, this Conference agrees that this has been one of its best gatherings. It seems to me that that is because, more than in any other assemblage that I ever attended or with which I have had any experience, the women have been with us, and have led us through the discussions and the debates. We are indebted to them; and let us remember it, and endeavor so to conduct ourselves that they may be with us on all future occasions.

No one who listened to the address of Bishop Ireland will have failed to note that the drinking habits of our countrymen have much to do with poverty and vice and degradation in our country; and, whatever we may think of this plan or that plan, the Conference, I think, is united in the belief that these habits should in every practicable way be diminished, and, if possible, abolished.

I agree in all that has been said as to the generous hospitality and the wise and well-directed efforts by which the people of St. Paul have made us comfortable during our stay with them; and I unite, as you all do, with the last speaker in saying, "God bless these good people!"

MISS CLARA BARTON.—The invitation to St. Paul, last year, promised much. The welcome of this year fulfils the brightest hopes. We knew your city was marvellous in its growth, magnificent in its wealth, and wonderful in its beauty. We have seen what we came far to see. We believed your palace homes were hospitable, and your hearts warm and generous; and we have found what we came to find. We felt that your charities were keeping pace with your rapidly increasing wealth. We were not wrong in our impressions. St. Paul has justified our fullest anticipation, and won our gratitude, our respect, our admiration, and our love. We shall carry away with us sweet memories that will fade only when all things earthly fade. Let us take with us this beautiful picture,—a magnificent city of sunshine and life, with its granite towering to the heavens and the Father of Waters rolling at its feet, of these halls and this chamber where we have sat together, and listened to the best words of wisdom given us to speak to one another. Let us pray God for life and strength to meet again, and for that wisdom which makes our meetings of use to mankind.

MR. BELL.—I should be disingenuous were I to admit that such things as you said to us during your visit to Minneapolis, and have crystallized into the resolutions now pending, were not grateful to us. They are. And yet it is not for this that we invited you to visit us. Those of us who had met many of you at Louisville, St. Louis, and Washington, and had had a taste of the good fellowship which we there enjoyed, desired our citizens to share it with us; and they have. As I was coming in at the door this morning, a young man from Minneapolis came in at the same time. I asked him what brought him down. He replied, "Well, I looked into the faces of these people at Minneapolis last night, and I wanted to see them again." And that is the way we have all felt. We are glad, not only that we have been permitted to look into the faces of men and



women from all these commonwealths, but are glad to grasp their warm hands. You are as truly ordained for your ministry to the weak, the helpless, and God's poor, and for winning back to lives of virtue and uprightness the sinning and erring, as though a bishop had laid on you consecrating hands. We rejoice in the inspiration that we have received from your presence, and heartily say, God bless you!

EX-GOV. MARSHALL.—I can say, in behalf of the city and of the State, that we feel grateful to you, ladies and gentlemen of this Conference, that you have honored us by holding your session here. Ours is a young State, a young city, but of yesterday; and we have been busy with the material development of our life. The thought of charity and benevolence come, I think, a little later in the growth of cities, as those sentiments do in the growth of men. We have been busy in building up the State, in spreading population over this fair land; and we have not heretofore given as much time and thought, perhaps, as we should have done to the weak and the helpless and the unfortunate. Your presence here, your discussions, have undoubtedly awakened a keen interest in these subjects. They are to us the beginning of an education in these matters. When you come again, as I trust you will, I hope you will find that the seed which you have sown here was sown in fertile soil; that it has sprung up to bear, some thirty, some sixty, and some a hundred-fold. I pledge you that we shall not be wasteful of this seed, nor neglectful of its cultivation. I trust our second State prison may not be hastily located, planned, or erected. I think, if our State had defrayed every dollar of your expense in coming and of your entertainment here, it would have been many-fold repaid by the advantages which will accrue to that one institution. I feel that now we shall not perpetrate the follies and the errors of the past, but that it will be so established—I hope patterned after the Elmira system—that it will be to this State an honor and a blessing.

MR. W. S. PATTEE.—Mr. Pattee regretted that he had been able to attend but few of the sessions of the Conference. He felt that the moral influence of a gathering of this kind was far more potent than legislation to effect the best results. Personal influence he placed far above legislation in matters of reform. I actually believe, he continued, that the influence of a distinguished lady in keeping the wine-cup from her table at the White House had a greater influence for temperance over all the land, than all the legislation in behalf of temperance that was ever enacted. We tell our little girls of that lady, and the wonderful influence that she has had,—how we have felt it in our own homes. You must remember, further, that your influence is not confined to these great cities. The reports of your meetings have appeared in the papers in all parts of the State. What you have been doing is known throughout this Northwest country. Such gatherings as this must create public opinion and help on human progress. After you have created this public opinion, we will come in with the rigidity of human law, and hold what you have secured.

BISHOP IRELAND.—It affords me great pleasure to unite my voice

with the voice of the speakers who have preceded me in expressing the great satisfaction which we have all felt in the meetings of this Conference. We are proud that you have come to us, and proud that, having seen Minnesota, you are pleased with it. This has certainly been for myself a week of great pleasure and education. I have listened to the papers and discussions, and have been grateful as an American citizen that here in America we could gather such an assembly in the name of charity; that such bright intelligence, such earnestness, such determination to do good to our fellow-men, should here meet in conference. I thank you for the inspiration which I myself have received; and I shall be more determined than ever, in the future, to do what I can to assist suffering humanity and to improve my fellow-men.

An allusion was made this afternoon, by a gentleman from Illinois, to the very pleasant thought of the catholicity of this Conference, taking in men of all classes and all ideas. He said that he was glad to see the Catholic clergy so numerous represented here. In the name of the clergy, I thank him for his sentiments; and I assure you that this thought is most agreeable to me. I entered this hall, knowing personally but very few; but I soon found myself at home. I soon recognized that charity is a blessed virtue, in the propagation of which we may all unite. I recognized, too, in this kindly welcome which you gave to the clergy, that the great purpose which we have in view — the scattering abroad of this blessed virtue of charity and the elevation of the poor — requires more than the mere good-will of the State, more than the lavish expenditure of State moneys, more than splendid institutions and magnificent edifices and the good-will of those who preside over them. What is needed is the power of religion. What is needed is the recognition of the superior Power above us, that Power which penetrates far beyond the reach of human law, which penetrates through every thought of the mind and every fibre of the heart. It is this that gives us hopefulness for America, because the American esteem and recognition of religion have great power in the world. The State does a great deal, but the State cannot do all; and the State in America will never make the fatal mistake of believing that it is omnipresent over minds and hearts as it may be over bodies. The State will never make the fatal mistake of excluding from its wards the power of religion. And hence in this gathering, in which the representatives of the States and the representatives of religion mingle together and discuss how best to alleviate the woes of humanity, this Conference recognizes the necessity of religion as the great reforming power.

Among the many discussions to which I have listened and which have cheered me on, I scarcely know which ones I would particularly allude to, so wise were all, so much intelligence was scattered through them. A few came more particularly home to myself, and I remember them well. Among others, I may mention the notable paper by Mr. Letchworth, who reminds us that in our official charity we must take great care to respect and fortify and nurture private charity. It were the greatest mistake if, in building up the institu-

tions of the State, we were to lead our citizens to believe that they had nothing more to do than pay their taxes. If this once came to be admitted, it would do immense harm; for charity does more good to the giver than to the receiver,—as the Good Book has said, “It is more blessed to give than to receive.” It does us good to come in contact with our suffering fellow-men. It softens our natures, it prevents egotism, it prevents estrangement of classes. Placing too much reliance on the State as the great reliever of suffering would destroy all generosity, and people would also soon find that the burden of taxation would be very heavy indeed. No one method must exclude the other. A subject very dear to myself has been from time to time alluded to, the subject of temperance; and I would again beg to unite my voice with that of the speaker who has preceded me, in giving expression to the thought that so often arose in my own mind,—of the great influence spread abroad through the world from the example of the noble lady who several years ago presided at the White House. This intemperance has done fearful harm; but, whatever may be the results that statistics show, we all know that, statistics or no statistics, it is the bane of our land and the fertile cause of every misery. How are we best to remove it? By laws? I am in favor of some laws; but the great power is example. And example must come from those in high places,—from men and women who, from their intelligence and their position and their interest in general matters, will control education; by the example of men and women such as those gathered here this evening, in the hall of the capitol of St. Paul. This is a great question, and I am very certain that much good will be done everywhere in this matter by the suggestions made here. I have been delighted also, in your discussions, to hear the condemnation of the existing system in reference to caring for female prisoners. It is a matter to which I have given great attention, wherein I have seen vast evils; and I do hope, for the honor of social purity and for the honor and respect for humanity,—ay, and for the honor of religion throughout this country of America,—an agitation will begin and continue, until wherever there are female prisoners there *must* be female employés in charge of them. We are now making criminals every day instead of reforming them. In the name of justice, we are doing fearful *injustice* to some poor creatures. This is a matter of great importance; and I was sorry, indeed, when it was announced that right here, in St. Paul, we had failed in giving due attention to this matter. But, with God’s help, we will do better.

I wish to thank you for your cordial attention to my words; and I trust that, as the years go by, I may often be permitted to assist at the annual reunions of your Conference of Charities.

DR. DANA.—In acknowledgment of the many kind things said of us in this State and city, we have no hesitation in affirming that this is the most important convention ever held in St. Paul. We were prepared for a feast of good things, and we have not been disappointed. Certainly, the themes discussed, the plans suggested, the work outlined, are in magnitude and urgency unrivalled. This Conference is a great educator; and, wherever it holds its sessions, it

will bring a new view of the needs of humanity, and demonstrate in how many methods its well-being can at once be advanced. While it lays before the public the claims of the dependent and unfortunate classes among us, it also shows what can and ought to be done to ameliorate their condition. The Conference goes here and there for its annual sessions, as yeast rather than bread, its value being in what it suggests, in the thought-ferment it occasions on the great questions in the sphere of charitable and correctional work. What the people want are new ideas,—the clear setting forth of the present imperfections of our prison methods, the gathering up of statistics bearing on the care of the insane, on the conduct and cost of reformatories, and of asylums for the defective. This Conference is called to teach the nation in reference to these practical and pressing matters. The unity of sentiment pervading it is as remarkable as it is exceptional. For here have come together from all parts of our land and at their own charge men and women differing in their political and religious creeds, but united for “sweet charity’s” sake, and working together along all lines that promise to bring a fruitage of good to the suffering and the erring. We hope, as one result of your meeting in the capital city of the North-west, that we shall profit by the light and experience brought to us from other commonwealths. Especially do we desire that there shall be established for our second prison, already projected, a reformatory modelled on the Elmira plan. Nay, we expect that all through the newer States of the West there will be a prompt movement to introduce this invaluable institution, that the district workhouses will speedily supplant the old-time county jails with their abuses, and that the treatment of criminals will be in accord with the better systems now in vogue in some of the States. Now, in conclusion, I may say, for the citizens of St. Paul and of Minnesota, that we thank you for coming hither. We have learned many lessons we shall not soon forget; we have formed many pleasant acquaintances, which is one of the signal charms of such gatherings; and, as you leave us, we bid you “Good-by” and “God-speed.”

Mr. HART.—This Conference is the consummation of hopes long cherished in Minnesota. The welcome that has been extended to you is not the welcome of St. Paul alone, although that has been hearty and generous,—not the welcome of the two great cities, but the welcome of the whole State. The people have come from far and near to attend it. A body of twenty sheriffs, members of the State Board of Charities, senators and members of the House, and representative men from all parts of the State have come and listened to its proceedings. It is not in vain that you have come to us. The heaven is at work, and we offer you heartfelt thanks for your influence upon our community. Five years ago, we had our first representatives in the Boston Conference. The next year, some twenty-five went to Madison. They came back full of enthusiasm, and Dr. Dana insisted that the next legislature should appoint a Board of Charities. That board, from the beginning of its work, has found hearty support. To-day, we have a school for dependent children,

similar to the one in Coldwater, Michigan, which will soon open its doors. I believe that the coming of this Conference has rendered it practically certain that our second State prison will be a reformatory for young men. A marked change has been seen in the administration of insane hospitals in this country, and I believe it is chiefly due to the influence set in motion by this Conference that the hospitals for the insane in Minnesota have fallen into line. . . . And now it falls to me to say the farewell word for our citizens, and I do it with a full heart. Our hearts go with you, our hands are reached out to you. As we go to the Conference in years to come, we shall feel that we go to meet old and tried friends. We should have been glad to welcome you to our firesides; but, since we were not permitted to do that, we want you to believe that there was as much warmth in our welcome as if we had done so. And we feel that, in any hospitality that we may have shown you, we were only returning the hospitality shown to us in other cities. Now, I want to say, God bless you, and to thank you earnestly for the words you have spoken. Do not pass us by, when you come this way again. You will always find a hearty welcome when you come. Good night and good-by.

Mr. NEFF.—*Ladies and Gentlemen*,—The programme of the Thirteenth Conference is now completed.

There remain for me two pleasant duties,—one, to thank you for your courtesy, your kindness, and your forbearance.

I have asked, and obtained permission to take with me this gavel, made by a convict for this Conference, which your knowledge of parliamentary law and decorous sense of propriety have rendered useless and needless.

I shall have it appropriately inscribed, and shall hand it down as a precious heirloom to my children,—a memorial of one of the best Conferences ever held and of the highest honor ever conferred upon me.

The other — my last remaining duty — is the honor and the privilege of presenting to you my successor, your next President, Hon. H. H. Giles, of Wisconsin, one of the pioneers in this great work of the National Conference of Charities,—one of four who, fourteen years ago, sowed the seed of which we are now enjoying the full fruition.

Hon. H. H. GILES, President-elect.—I thank you, ladies and gentlemen, for the honor conferred upon me. Allusion was made by Mr. Neff to the early organization of this Conference. Indeed, more than once during the week we have been here, my mind has gone back to that time. Fourteen years ago this summer, in an upper room in the city of Chicago, thirteen men and one woman met and deliberated, though we hardly knew what we had come together for. But we spent the day; and, at its close, we had formulated our conclusions in a resolution, the sum and substance of which was that the county jails of Illinois, Wisconsin, and Michigan were nurseries of crime. Four of those who were present at that little conference, three men and the one woman, have been in attendance on this Conference. But what a history has been written in these United States during the last fourteen years! How some of us have been



discouraged,—ah! yes, disheartened and cast down,—when we have attempted to mould public opinion, to enlighten and crystallize it, and the public has turned a deaf ear! But, all at once as it were, in a day, that which was sown has germinated, has grown, blossomed,—yea, and fruited; and the harvest is seen in the reform of existing evils. All along the fourteen years there has been constant advance. How different is the condition of public institutions throughout this North-west from what it was fourteen years ago! I could give you sad recitals of some of the institutions in my State, sixteen years ago. It would make a human heart bleed with sorrow, it would make a lover of his State blush for shame, to know the things of the past. But much of the work that has been done is the result of the labors of this organization. Still there is much to do. The field has broadened, and it continues to broaden year by year. Some of us felt fourteen years ago that, if we could see the time when some of these evils were remedied through our efforts, we would be ready to say, with Simeon of old, Let us depart in peace. But, as the outposts have been carried farther and farther, we see that there is no limit to the work of reform. In spite of discouragements, he that works in faith that the end will be accomplished will see the realization of his hopes. I am glad to bear my testimony to the fact that this has been the best Conference that we have ever held; and I only pledge you, as your presiding officer for the coming year, to make the Conference at Omaha, if I can, attain the renown that you have achieved this year. God bless you all, and return you to your homes in safety, and grant that you may find all your dear ones there in health. Good night.

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Mr. GARRETT then offered the following resolution, which was unanimously adopted, together with the preceding resolutions:—

*Resolved*, That the thanks of this Conference are hereby tendered to the President of the Conference for the remarkable urbanity, ability, and success with which he has presided over its deliberations, and with him to the secretaries and to the chairmen of Standing Committees, whose indefatigable industry and skill have contributed mainly to the grand result, and rendered the St. Paul meeting conspicuous for its numbers and the value of its discussions.

On motion, it was voted to insert the portraits of Hon. W. P. Letchworth, and Hon. William Howard Neff in the Report of the Proceedings.

At the request of Mr. Thane Miller, the hymn "America" was sung, a benediction was pronounced by Bishop Whipple, and at 10.10 P.M. the Conference adjourned *sine die*, to meet next year in Omaha, Neb.



## FINANCIAL STATEMENT.

The following financial statement was submitted to the Conference :—

*To the President of the National Conference of Charities :*

The undersigned, for the Executive Committee, presents the following report concerning the published Proceedings of the Conference, with the expenses and receipts attending the same during the past seven months. The number of copies printed of the Proceedings of the Twelfth Conference was two thousand, and the number of these now on hand and unsold appears to be about two hundred. Of the Proceedings in former years there are perhaps two hundred and fifty of 1874; fourteen of 1875; none of 1876; eight of 1877; four of 1878; fourteen of 1879; three of 1880; one hundred and five of 1881; one hundred and forty-five of 1882; two hundred and eighty-five of 1883; one hundred and fifty of 1884,—in all, therefore, about eleven hundred copies, which, if sold, might bring \$1,000. Probably enough of them will be sold during the coming year to amount to \$100, in addition to the sums which will be received from the Proceedings of the Thirteenth Conference now in session.

The account submitted to me shows the following receipts and expenses since Dec. 1, 1885, on account of the printing, binding, freight charges, etc., of the Proceedings of the Conference for 1885, including the sales of the Proceedings in former years :—

## CASH RECEIPTS.

Dec. 28. 1885.	By Cash, Pennsylvania Board, . . . . .	\$112.50
Jan. 2. 1886.	" Michigan Board, . . . . .	180.00
" 6. "	" Massachusetts Board, . . . . .	103.13
" 6. "	" Rhode Island Board, . . . . .	30.00
" 6. "	" House of Refuge, Philadelphia, . . . . .	31.25
" 8. "	" Connecticut Board, . . . . .	25.00
" 13. "	" New York Board, . . . . .	100.13
" 20. "	" Petty sales to date, . . . . .	280.00
" 22. "	" Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity, . . . . .	35.00
" 25. "	" Minnesota Board, . . . . .	164.70
Feb. 5. "	" Illinois Board, . . . . .	148.88
Mch. 15. "	" Ohio Board, . . . . .	112.50
Apr. 16. "	" Wisconsin Board, . . . . .	172.50
" 30. "	" Petty sales to date, . . . . .	189.60
June 3. "	" " " " " " " " " " " "	56.00
Total Receipts, . . . . .		\$1,741.19

## CASH PAYMENTS.

To Geo. H. Ellis, Printer, namely:—

Dec. 7. 2,000 copies of Annual Report, . . . . .	\$1,732.50	
“ Binding 6 sets, 36 volumes, Annual Report, . . .	7.20	
“ “ 10 volumes Twelfth Conference, . . . . .	2.00	
“ 1,000 No. 6 envelopes plain, . . . . .	1.50	
“ 500 No. 5 envelopes and printing, . . . . .	1.50	
“ 100 bill-heads, . . . . .	1.25	
“ 500 subscription blanks, . . . . .	1.75	
“ 500 3-page circulars, . . . . .	3.50	
Mch. 9. Binding 10 copies Conference of Charities, . .	2.00	\$1,753.20

To steamship and transit companies, namely:—

May 20. For freight, . . . . .	\$18.99	
“ 31. “ . . . . .	2.24	21.23
Total, . . . . .		\$1,774.43

There is yet due from Baltimore Penitentiary, . . . . .	\$30.00	
And there are petty sales of . . . . .	16.00	46.00
Which, added to the receipts above given, makes a total of .		\$1,787.19
		\$12.76

When these payments are made, therefore, there will be a small surplus of receipts; and the present deficiency is only \$17.24 for money advanced by the Executive Committee, all bills having been paid on this account.\*

Respectfully submitted,

F. B. SANBORN, *Treasurer.*

ST. PAUL, July 17, 1886.

\*The following statement shows that this deficit is now made up:—

Received for petty sales since July 17, . . . . .	\$21.07
Paid for freight, . . . . .	17.24
Balance to old account, . . . . .	\$3.83

F. B. SANBORN, *Treasurer.*

BOSTON, Dec. 4, 1886.

## LIST OF DELEGATES.\*

### Colorado.

- \* Brooks, Rev. E. C., Chaplain State Penitentiary and Colorado Association for the Relief of Criminal and Unfortunates, Cañon City.
- Reed, Rev. Myron W., Denver.
- \* Sperry, Mrs. J. S., Manager Ladies' Benevolent Union, Pueblo.

### Connecticut.

- Beers, Mrs. Mary A., Temporary Home for Neglected and Destitute Children, Stratford.
- Griswold, Miss Josephine W., City Mission, Hartford.
- \* Knight, Dr. George H., Superintendent School for Feeble-minded Children, Lakeville.
- Knight, Mrs. George H., Lakeville.
- Smith, Mrs. Virginia T., Member of State Board of Charities, Hartford.

### Dakota.

- \* Archibald, Dr. O. W., Superintendent North Dakota Hospital for Insane, Jamestown.
- Dennis, Gen. John B., ex-Superintendent South Carolina Penitentiary, Yankton.
- \* Ford, Dr. O. M., Aberdeen.
- Lord, Henry W., Devil's Lake.
- Schaetzel, Jacob, Jr., Sioux Falls.
- Shaw, Amos F., Warden Penitentiary, Sioux Falls.
- Tripp, Bartlett, Chief Justice of Dakota, Yankton.
- \* Visser, John, Children's Aid Society of New York, Forestburg.
- Walker, Rt. Rev. W. D., Fargo.
- Williamson, Rev. John P., Dakota Indian Mission, Greenwood.

### District of Columbia.

- Barton, Miss Clara, President American Association of the National Red Cross, Washington.
- Hubbell, Dr. Julian B., General Field Agent American National Red Cross, Washington.
- Langdon, Mrs. J. Le Droit, Washington.
- \* Spencer, H. C., Delegate Charity Organization Society.
- \* Spencer, Mrs. Sara A., Vice-President Charity Organization Society.

### Illinois.

- Bagby, Miss Lucy, Charitable Aid and Hospital Association, Quincy.
- Bailey, F. F., Chicago.
- Bell, H. H., Chicago.
- Boicourt, W. H., Trustee Southern Hospital for Insane, Golconda.
- Bottom, James, Trustee Southern Hospital for Insane, Sparta.
- Brennan, Thomas, County Treasurer, Chicago.

- Brown, Miss Ella S., Teacher Institute for Feeble-minded, Lincoln.
- Burnell, K. A., Chicago.
- Cloonan, Thomas, Chicago.
- Coffin, Charles F., Vice-President Illinois Prisoners' Aid Society, Chicago.
- Corbus, Dr. J. C., State Public Charities, Mendota.
- Corbus, Mrs. J. C., Mendota.
- Croswell, J. T., President State Reform School Board, Pontiac.
- Croswell, Mrs. J. T., Pontiac.
- Dewey, Dr. R. S., Superintendent Eastern Hospital for Insane, Kankakee.
- Dewey, Mrs. R. S., Kankakee.
- Dorney, Rev. M. J., Chicago.
- Finch, E. H., Trustee Southern Hospital for Insane, Anna.
- Flower, Mrs. J. M., Acting President of the Illinois Training-school for Nurses, Chicago.
- Frey, C. L., Warden Cook County Infirmary, Chicago.
- Galvin, Rev. Edward I., Chairman Committee on Discharged Convicts, Chicago.
- Green, A. W., Delegate from Cook County, Chicago.
- Haller, Dr. F. B., State Commissioner of Public Charities, Vandalia.
- Hanagan, John, County Commissioner, Chicago.
- Harrison, Mrs. Ursula L., Superintendent Illinois Industrial School for Girls, South Evanston.
- Hilton, Mrs. J. C., President Chicago Hospital for Women and Children, Chicago.
- Hunt, Dr. Florence W., Assistant Physician Cook County Insane Hospital, Chicago.
- Johnson, W. Alex., Secretary Charity Organization Society, Chicago.
- Kendall, Solon, Trustee State Reform School, Geneseo.
- Kendall, Mrs. Solon, Geneseo.
- Kleum, George C., Chairman Board of Commissioners of Cook County, Chicago.
- Leyden, M. R., County Commissioner, Chicago.
- Marsh, Mrs. G. B., President Illinois Industrial School for Girls, Chicago.
- McCarthy, J. J., County Commissioner, Chicago.
- McGarigle, William J., Warden Cook County Hospital, Chicago.
- McGregger, E., Chicago.
- Moudy, Mrs. M. H., Superintendent Home for the Friendless, Chicago.
- Niesen, Frank, County Commissioner, Chicago.
- O'Brien, James, County Agent, Chicago.
- Pinkerton, Miss Alice, Sparta.
- Prendergast, Richard, County Judge of Cook County, Chicago.
- Prince, Mrs. Barbara M., Benevolent Society, Bloomington.
- Rend, W. P., Chicago.
- Reynolds, Dr. Belle L., Physician Home for the Friendless, Chicago.

\* State, territorial, and district delegates are marked thus \*.

Sanger, Mrs. Mary Catharine, Trustee Illinois Industrial School for Girls, Chicago.  
 Scouller, J. D., Superintendent State Reform School, Pontiac.  
 Scouller, Mrs. J. D., Matron State Reform School, Pontiac.  
 Walter, Miss Nellie Edie, Joliet.  
 Walter, Rev. J. J., Chaplain State Penitentiary, Joliet.  
 Wardner, Dr. H., Superintendent Southern Hospital for Insane, Anna.  
 Wines, Rev. Fred. H., Secretary State Board of Public Charities, Springfield.  
 Woods, Mrs. Helen M., Erring Women's Refuge for Reform, Chicago.  
 Woodward, Mrs. G. W., Trustee Illinois Industrial School for Girls, Chicago.

## Indiana.

Briggs, Howard, Trustee Institute for the Blind, Greencastle.  
 Burrell, B. H., Trustee Indiana Hospital for Insane, Brownstown.  
 Burrell, Mrs. B. H., Brownstown.  
 Burrell, Miss Dora, Brownstown.  
 Charlton, Mrs. Alice R., Matron State Reform School, Plainfield.  
 \*Charlton, T. J., Superintendent State Reform School, Plainfield.  
 Corning, Rev. J. L., Terre Haute.  
 Fletcher, Miss Emma, Indianapolis.  
 Fletcher, Miss Lucy, Assistant Matron Indiana Hospital for Insane, Indianapolis.  
 \*Fletcher, Dr. W. B., Superintendent Hospital for Insane, Indianapolis.  
 Harrison, Mrs. M. H., Lebanon.  
 \*Harrison, Dr. Thomas H., Trustee State Hospital for Insane, Lebanon.  
 Hendricks, Mrs. Eliza C., President Board Directors Indiana Reformatory Institution for Girls, Indianapolis.  
 Keeley, Miss Sadie F., Superintendent Indiana Woman's Reformatory, Indianapolis.  
 Knickerbocker, Bishop, D. B., Indianapolis.  
 \*McCulloch, Rev. Oscar C., President Charity Organization, Indianapolis.  
 McCulloch, Mrs. Oscar C., Indianapolis.  
 Mills, J. J., President Earlham College, Richmond.  
 Mills, Mrs. E. W., Richmond.  
 Morris, Prof. A. H., Superintendent Indiana Soldiers' Orphans' Home and Asylum for Feeble-minded Children, Knightstown.  
 Rankin, W. T., Hanover.  
 Ridgway, Mrs. S. P., Indianapolis Benevolent Society, Indianapolis.  
 Rohrer, Miss S. K., Indianapolis Benevolent Society, Indianapolis.  
 Tilson, Mrs. A. M., Charity Organization Society, Indianapolis.

## Iowa.

Bickford, Miss L. F., Matron Home for Friendless Women, Davenport.  
 Carhart, Mrs. L. D., Superintendent W. C. T. U. Jail and Prison Work, Marion.  
 \*Cleaves, Dr. Margaret A., Des Moines.  
 Hunting, Rev. S. S., President Iowa Prison Aid Association, Des Moines.  
 McCowen, Dr. Jennie, Physician to Cook Home for the Friendless, Davenport.  
 Miles, B. J., Superintendent Industrial School for Boys, Eldora.  
 Orwig, Mrs. Maria S., Member Board of Directors Home for Friendless Children, Des Moines.

Pierce, S. W., Superintendent Soldiers' Orphan Home and Home for Indigent Children, Davenport.  
 Pierce, Mrs. S. W., Matron Iowa Orphans' Home, Davenport.  
 Strather, Miss Virginia, Cresco.  
 Tull, Miss Hettie, Cresco.  
 Tull, Rev. J. D., Howard County, Cresco.  
 Wheeler, Mrs. E. A., President Ladies' Charity Association, Cedar Rapids.  
 Williston, Rev. M. L., Associated Charities, Davenport.  
 \*Woods, Mrs. S. R., Visiting Committee of State Insane Hospitals, Marshalltown.

## Kentucky.

Blain, Randolph H., President Charity Organization Society, Louisville.  
 Caldwell, P., Superintendent Industrial Reform School, Louisville.  
 Caldwell, Mrs. P., Louisville.  
 Spalding, D., Member Board of Trustees of Industrial Reform School, Louisville.

## Manitoba.

Silcox, Rev. John B., Winnipeg.

## Massachusetts.

Barrows, Mrs. Isabel C., Official Editor of the Conference, 141 Franklin Street, Boston.  
 Clark, Prof. John B., Northampton.  
 Doane, Col. Thomas, Associated Charities, Boston.  
 Doane, Mrs. Thomas, Boston.  
 French, John D. W., Associated Charities, Boston.  
 Sanborn, F. B., State Inspector of Charities, Concord.  
 Shurtleff, Hiram S., State Superintendent Outdoor Poor, Boston.  
 Spare, Miss Maria L., Cambridge.  
 Wells, John D., Clerk State Board of Lunacy and Charity, Boston.

## Maryland.

Gundry, Miss M., Baltimore.  
 Gundry, Dr. Richard, Maryland Hospital for the Insane, Catonsville.  
 Kirkwood, R. J., Superintendent House of Refuge, Baltimore.  
 Kirkwood, Mrs. R. J., Baltimore.  
 Kloman, Dr. W. C., General Manager Charity Organization Society, Baltimore.

## Michigan.

Barbour, Levi L., Member State Board of Corrections and Charities, Detroit.  
 Chamberlain, Hon. William, Inspector State Prison, Three Oaks.  
 Cooley, Mrs. Mary E., Member Board of Control of Industrial Home for Girls, Ann Arbor.  
 Foster, John N., Superintendent State Public School, Coldwater.  
 Foster, Mrs. John N., General Matron State Public School, Coldwater.  
 Gillespie, Rt. Rev. George D., Chairman State Board of Corrections and Charities, Grand Rapids.  
 Gower, C. A., Superintendent State Reform School, Lansing.  
 Hurd, Henry M., Medical Superintendent Eastern Michigan Asylum for Insane, Pontiac.  
 O'Brien, Rev. F. A., Member State Board of Corrections and Charities, Kalamazoo.

Scott, Miss Margaret, Superintendent Industrial Home for Girls, Adrian.  
 Smith, Dwight, State Prison Board, Jackson.  
 Storrs, L. C., Secretary State Board of Corrections and Charities, Lansing.  
 Wheeler, John J., Member State Board of Corrections and Charities, East Saginaw.  
 Woodward, W. D., Member Board of State Prison Directors, Owosso.

### Minnesota.

Alexander, W. S., St. Paul.  
 Alexander, Mrs. W. S., Treasurer Women's Exchange, St. Paul.  
 Ancker, Dr. A. B., Physician City and County Hospital, St. Paul.  
 Baker, F. D., ex-Assistant Superintendent Home for Refuge at Rochester, N. Y., St. Paul.  
 Barber, Dr. R. D., Worthington.  
 Barton, Asa, Sheriff of Rice County, Faribault.  
 Bell, D. C., Member State Board of Corrections and Charities, Minneapolis.  
 Bell, John E., Minneapolis.  
 Bell, Mrs. D. C., Minneapolis.  
 Bennett, Dr. L. L., Commissioner Steele County, Owatonna.  
 Berghold, Rev. Alexander, Superintendent St. Alexander's Hospital, New Ulm.  
 Berry, Gen. C. H., State Board of Corrections and Charities, Winona.  
 Berry, Mrs. Gen. C. H., Winona.  
 Blakeley, Capt. Russell, President Chamber of Commerce, St. Paul.  
 Boardman, Dr. C. H., State Lunacy Commission, St. Paul.  
 Bodkin, W. J., Sheriff of Clay County, Moorhead.  
 Bowers, Dr. J. Eaton, Superintendent Second Hospital for Insane, Rochester.  
 Bowers, Mrs. J. E., Rochester.  
 Brackett, George A., Minneapolis.  
 Brackett, W. M., Sheriff of Hennepin County, Minneapolis.  
 Brandenburg, A., Sheriff of Otter Tail County, Fergus Falls.  
 Bray, Patrick, Sheriff of Sibley County, Henderson.  
 Brown, J. W., Acting Superintendent State Reform School, St. Paul.  
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 Brunson, Mrs. Charles B., St. Luke's Hospital, St. Paul.  
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 Campbell, William M., State Board of Corrections and Charities, St. Paul.  
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 Lack, Mrs. F., St. Louis.  
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 Parmelee, Miss M. G., Teacher of Music, Institution for Blind, Nebraska City.  
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## New York.

Angell, Stephen, Chaplain Colored Orphan Asylum, New York.  
 Angell, Mrs. Stephen, Home for the Friendless, New York.  
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 Kellogg, Mrs. Chas. D., New York.  
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 Ogden, Mrs. D. A., Penn Yan.  
 Ogden, Miss Harriot, Penn Yan.  
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 Smith, Chauncey P., Charity Organization Society, Buffalo.  
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 Tillson, Mrs. Oliver J., Highland.  
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- \* Mills, J. H., Thomasville.

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 Amos, John M., Trustee Athens Asylum for Insane, Cambridge.  
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 Bradstreet, Mrs. E. P., Cincinnati.  
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 Byers, Dr. A. G., Secretary Board of State Charities, Columbus.  
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 Crawford, Mrs. J. M., Matron Girls' Industrial Home, Delaware.  
 Dalton, James, Director House of Refuge, Cincinnati.  
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 Davis, Mrs. Theo. F., Marietta.  
 Finch, Dr. C. M., Superintendent Columbus Asylum for Insane, Columbus.  
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 Hart, Dr. Albert G., Cleveland Polyclinic, Cleveland.  
 Hayes, Rutherford B., Fremont.  
 Hayes, Mrs. Rutherford B., Fremont.  
 Hite, J. C., Superintendent Boys' Industrial School, Lancaster.  
 Hite, Mrs. J. C., Matron Boys' Industrial School, Lancaster.  
 Hoadly, George, Cincinnati.  
 Hoadly, Mrs. George.  
 Hoadly, Miss Laura.  
 Janney, J. J., Columbus.  
 Mears, James C., Cincinnati.  
 Miller, H. Thane, Director House of Refuge, Cincinnati.  
 Miller, Mrs. H. Thane, County Visitor Hamilton County, Cincinnati.  
 Neff, William Howard, Cincinnati.  
 Neff, Mrs. William Howard, Cincinnati.  
 Neff, Miss Mary S., Cincinnati.  
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 Richardson, Mrs. A. B., Matron Asylum for Insane, Athens.  
 Richardson, Miss Louise D., Athens.  
 Rosemond, Fred L., Cambridge.  
 Russell, C. M., Massillon.  
 White, Albert S., Superintendent Children's Home, Columbus.  
 Yost, J. W., Columbus.  
 Yost, Mrs. J. W., Columbus.

## Oregon.

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- \* Spalding, Miss Helen F., Portland.

## Pennsylvania.

Bull, Rev. Wm. L., Chester County Children's Aid Society, Whitford.  
 \* Donehoo, Rev. E. R., Association for Improvement of the Poor, Pittsburgh.  
 Garrett, Philip C., President State Board of Charities, Philadelphia.  
 Hallowell, Miss Anna, Society for Organizing Charity, Philadelphia.  
 Hallowell, Miss Emily, Society for Organizing Charity, Philadelphia.  
 Hallowell, Miss Susan M., Children's Aid Society, Philadelphia.  
 Jeffers, Dr. Edgar P., General Secretary Society for Organizing Charity, Philadelphia.  
 Kerlin, Dr. Isaac N., Superintendent Pennsylvania Institution for Feeble-minded Children, Elwyn.  
 Kerlin, Mrs. Harriet C., Elwyn.

Milligan, Rev. J. L., Chaplain Western State Penitentiary and President Allegheny County Prison Society, Allegheny.  
 O'Neal, Dr. J. W. C., State Board of Public Charities, Gettysburg.  
 Paist, M. K., Philadelphia.  
 Paist, Mrs. Harriet W., Delegate Prison Discipline Society, Philadelphia.  
 Sawyer, William J., State Board of Public Charities, Allegheny.  
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## Rhode Island.

Barney, Mrs. J. K., Superintendent Prison, Jail, Police, and Almshouse Work of N. W. C. T. U.

## Texas.

Buckner, Rev. R. C., D.D., General Manager Buckner Orphans' Home, Dallas.  
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## Washington Territory.

\*Bane, Gen. M. M., Spokane Falls.  
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## Wisconsin.

Blair, Miss E. H., Registrar Associated Charities, Milwaukee.  
 Case, Miss Carrie, Prairie du Chien.  
 \*Cleary, Rev. J. M., Kenosha.  
 Cobb, Mrs. Mary E. R., Superintendent Industrial School for Girls, Milwaukee.  
 Connell, Dr. Anna, Matron and Physician Milwaukee County Hospital, Wauwatosa.  
 Curtis, W. B., Shell Lake.  
 Doe, J. B., Jr., Janesville.  
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 Feathers, Mrs. O. H., Janesville.  
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 Gordon, Mrs. G. E., Secretary Wisconsin Humane Society, Milwaukee.  
 Griswold, Miss Florence, Columbus.  
 \*Griswold, Mrs. Hattie Tyng, Columbus.  
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 Spensley, Mrs. James, Mineral Point.  
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